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ABSTRACT

Findings of a study are reported that applied two career pattern systems for women to historical data collected in 1967 on a national sample of 4,996 black and white women ages 30-34. Information was provided on (1) the proportion of women who can be classified into each career pattern in the system(s), and (2) relationships of career development variables to the career patterns. The first career pattern system was based on the milestones of leaving school, marriage, and the acquisition of the first child, with the intensity of work between these milestones in terms of the percentage of time spent in the labor force taken into account. The second set of career patterns was based on Donald Super's system of career patterns. Both career pattern systems were analyzed separately for black and white women. Means, standard deviations, and correlations were calculated for each career pattern in both systems for career development variables, including education, relative desirability of occupational assignment, age at milestones, proportion of time spent in the labor force, income, family related variables, and attitudes toward work. In this report, detailed findings are reported on career development variables, and five areas of implications of the data are presented: career patterns, career development, number of children, base data, and educational implications. (TA)

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(Re-issue)

CAREER PATTERNS OF A NATIONAL SAMPLE OF WOMEN

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THE CENTER MISSION STATEMENT

The Center for Vocational Education's mission is to increase the ability of diverse agencies, institutions, and organizations to solve educational problems relating to individual career planning, preparation, and progression. The Center fulfills its mission by:

- Generating knowledge through research
- Developing educational programs and products
- Evaluating individual program needs and outcomes
- Installing educational programs and products
- Conducting leadership development and training programs

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
FOREWORD	iii
LIST OF TABLES	vii
LIST OF FIGURES	x
SUMMARY	xi
INTRODUCTION	3
The Problem	3
Objectives of the Study	9
METHODS AND PROCEDURES	10
Population, Sample, Procedures for Sampling	10
Data and Instrumentation	10
Career Patterns	11
RESULTS AND IMPLICATIONS	26
Career Patterns and Groups	26
Career Development Variables	28
Super's Career Patterns	37
Career Development Variables	39
Summary of Results	43
Implications	44
Further Research Suggestions	45
APPENDIX	48
REFERENCES	69

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1.	Proportion of Women in Each Work Intensity Category by Color for Periods Between School and Marriage and Marriage and First Child	14
2.	Incidence of "Missing" and "Not Appropriate" Data	25
3.	Distribution of Women in Career Groups and Patterns	27
4.	Mean Values of Career Development Variables by Career Group and Career Pattern	29
5.	Pair-wise Complete Data Correlation Matrix of Selected Variables for White and Black Women	30
6.	Correlations Among Career Development Variables by Career Group and Color	31
7.	Distribution of Women into Super's Career Patterns by Color	38
8.	Means and Standard Deviations of Career Development Variables by Super's Career Patterns	40
9.	Correlations Among Career Development Variables by Super's Career Pattern and Color	41
A-1	Means and Standard Deviations of Years of Formal Education by Career Group and Pattern	49
A-2	Means and Standard Deviations of the Duncan Index of Current or Last Job by Career Group and Pattern	50

Table		Page
A-3	Means and Standard Deviations of Percentage of Time Spent in Labor Force Since Leaving School by Career Group and Pattern	51
A-4	Means and Standard Deviations of Percentage of Time Spent in Labor Force Between School and Marriage by Career Group and Pattern	52
A-5	Means and Standard Deviations of Percentage of Time Spent in Labor Force Between Marriage and First Child by Career Group and Pattern	53
A-6	Means and Standard Deviations of Percentage of Time Spent in Labor Force Following Birth or Acquisition of First Child by Career Group and Pattern	54
A-7	Means and Standard Deviations of Number of Children by Career Group and Pattern	55
A-8	Means and Standard Deviations of Husband's Education by Career Group and Pattern	56
A-9	Means and Standard Deviations of Husband's Duncan Index by Career Group and Pattern	57
A-10	Means and Standard Deviations of Father's Education by Career Group and Pattern	58
A-11	Means and Standard Deviations of Duncan Index of Head of Household When Woman was 15 by Career Group and Pattern	59
A-12	Means and Standard Deviations of Age at Leaving School by Career Group and Pattern	60

Table		Page
A-13	Means and Standard Deviations of Age at First Marriage by Career Group and Pattern	61
A-14	Means and Standard Deviations of Age at Birth or Acquisition of First Child by Career Group and Pattern	62
A-15	Means and Standard Deviations of Current Personal Income by Career Group and Pattern	63
A-16	Means and Standard Deviations of Current Family Income by Career Group and Pattern	64
A-17	Means and Standard Deviations of Attitude Toward Working When It Is Necessary for Family by Career Group and Pattern	65
A-18	Means and Standard Deviations of Attitude Toward Working When Wife Wants to and Husband Agrees by Career Group and Pattern	66
A-19	Means and Standard Deviations of Attitude Toward Working When Wife Wants to and Husband Disagrees by Career Group and Pattern	67
A-20	Means and Standard Deviations of Perceived Husband's Attitude Toward Wife's Working by Career Group and Pattern	68

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1.	Distribution of Work Intensity by Color for Period Between School and Present	13
2.	Distribution of Work Intensity by Color for Period Between First Child and Present	15
3.	Tree Diagram Showing Breakdown into Major Groups	16
4.	Tree Diagram Showing Derivations of Career Patterns From 3 Major Groups	18

FOREWORD

The Center is currently engaged in a number of activities designed to aid in achieving orderly and meaningful career development and adjustment. This project was an effort to supply to researchers and counselors the needed baseline data on the career patterns of women. This reissue of RD No. 95 was necessitated by the discovery that data on one of the major variables was miscoded by the Bureau of Census for over 40 percent of the sample.

This publication reports the findings of a study that applied two career pattern systems for women to data available on a national sample of 4,996 women. Other career development variables such as education, attitudes toward work, and number of children were studied in relationship to the career patterns. The findings should be of interest to researchers and educators in developing educational and guidance experiences for women.

We would like to acknowledge the sponsor of the project, The Education and Work Group of the National Institute of Education. We would also like to acknowledge the Center for Human Resource Research, The Ohio State University, for permission to use the data and Dr. Herbert S. Parnes and Dr. Roger D. Roderick for their assistance in obtaining the data. Responsibility for the use of the data is solely that of the authors. We would like to thank Dr. Donald E. Super, Dr. Roger D. Roderick, and Dr. Ralph Kester for their review of the manuscript; Dr. E.J. Morrison and Dr. Nancy Wiggins for their assistance; Dr. Gary Morris; Ms. Sandra R. Orletsky, and Mr. Robert M. Ransom for their help in analyzing and preparing the data; Ms. Christine Brose, Ms. Cynthia Griest, and Ms. Mary LaBelle for their careful preparation of the manuscript. Special recognition is due Louise Vetter and David W. Stockburger, who conducted the research, and David Shinar, who assisted in the initial analysis of the data.

Robert E. Taylor
Executive Director
Center for Vocational Education

SUMMARY

Women constitute 40 percent of the labor force and 46 percent of all women are working. However, there is little information about the career patterns that women have followed. A system for classifying the career patterns of women was suggested by Super, but only one small study has been carried out using that system. The purpose of this study was to provide information on the career patterns of a national sample of women, both white and black, ages thirty to forty-four, to the point in their lives when the data were collected. Specifically, the study provided information on (1) the proportion of women who can be classified into each career pattern in the system(s) and (2) the relationships of career development variables to the career patterns.

Data on the work experience of 4,996 women, 3,606 white, and 1,390 black, were obtained from the Center for Human Resource Research. The data were collected in 1967.

A career pattern system was developed based on the milestones of leaving school, marriage, and the acquisition of the first child, with the intensity of work between these milestones in terms of the percentage of time spent in the labor force being taken into account. A second set of career patterns was based on the system proposed by Super in 1957. Both career pattern systems were analyzed separately for black and white women.

Means, standard deviations, and correlations were calculated for each career pattern in both systems for career development variables, including education, relative desirability of occupational assignment, age at milestones (leaving school, marriage, and first child), proportion of time spent in the labor force, income, family related variables, and attitudes toward work. The distribution into career patterns and relationships to other variables are reported below.

Career Groups

For the first career pattern system, it was found that 18 percent of the white sample and 30 percent of the black sample had worked continuously or almost so since leaving school. Thirty-two percent of the white sample either were currently employed or had significant work experience since the last milestone, while 37 percent of the black sample was included in this group. Fifty percent of the white women in the sample and 33 percent of the black women either had no work experience or no work experience after marriage or the acquisition of children.

Super's Career Patterns

Super proposed the following career pattern classification system:

1. Stable homemaking--no work experience.

2. Conventional--work experience prior to marriage, then full-time homemaking.

3. Stable working--the single woman who continues to work full-time.

4. Double-track--the married woman who continues to work full-time.

5. Interrupted--sequence of working, homemaking for a period of years, then working while homemaking.

6. Unstable--in and out of the labor market at frequent intervals.

The percentages of the white and black women in the sample respectively classified into these patterns were: Stable homemaking, 22 percent of the white women and 21 percent of the black women; Conventional, 30 percent and 10 percent; Stable working, 4 percent and 3 percent; Double-track, 13 percent and 23 percent; Interrupted, 18 percent and 10 percent; and Unstable, 15 percent and 32 percent.

Career Development Variables

Detailed findings are presented in the text and tables; some of the more important findings are indicated below.

Findings for the milestone career pattern system indicated that white and black women were distributed differently among these patterns with the black women generally having spent a greater percentage of time in the work force, especially after the birth of the first child. For both white and black, the continuously working women had more education, relatively more desirable occupational assignments, and a greater personal income than those women who were not classified as continuously working. Single women within the continuously working group generally had more education and more desirable occupational assignments than those who were married.

Within the non-continuously working groups of women (more than 80 percent of the sample), two different pictures emerge for white and black women. The married white woman who was not currently working had about the same educational level and last occupational assignment as the currently working white woman who had not worked continuously. The former was more likely to have a husband who was better educated with a more desirable job than the latter. Both personal and family income was more for the former group than the latter. For black women, there were different results. If she was a married, currently employed woman, she was more likely to be employed in a

more desirable occupation than the last occupation of those black women who were not currently working. She was better educated and her family had a higher income than her non-working counterpart.

For Super's (1957) system of career patterns, the following results were found. The proportion of black women who were classified as Double-track was greater than that of white women. White women were just as likely to be classified as Stable Working as black women. White women were most likely to be classified in the Conventional pattern while black women were most likely to be classified as having an Unstable career pattern. The "conventional" white women had better educated husbands than the white women in either the Double-track or Stable Homemaking patterns. The Double-track family had a larger family income than either the Conventional or Stable Homemaking. On the other hand, black women who were classified in the Stable Working or Interrupted patterns had a higher educational level than black women in the Double-track, Conventional or Stable Homemaking Patterns. The husbands of the women in the Interrupted pattern also had a higher educational level and more desirable jobs than the husband's of the black women in either the Stable Homemaking, Double-track or Conventional patterns.

Implications

Five areas of implications were considered: career patterns, career development, number of children, base data, and educational implications. It was concluded that both systems of career patterns had certain areas of usefulness, although both should be applied to more current data and a wider range of variables. The data used in this study were useful to establish a historical baseline to which further studies may be compared. Several suggestions for further research were included.

It is hoped that the information from this study will be useful to educational researchers, developers, and guidance personnel as they progress in the development of curricula, guidance methods, and materials for the girls and women in our educational systems.

CAREER PATTERNS OF

A NATIONAL SAMPLE OF WOMEN

INTRODUCTION

The Problem

Women constitute 40 percent of the labor force and 46 percent of all women are working (Women's Bureau, 1975). However, most studies in the areas of occupations, vocational development, careers, and career patterns have concentrated on men (Vetter, 1973; Kievit, 1972; Psathas, 1968). In addition, most of the studies of, and information about, women in the labor force have provided data cross-sectionally; that is, the data related to the particular time at which it was collected rather than following the pattern of employment over a period of years.

Two studies (Wolfson, 1972 and Mulvey, 1963) have provided some information on career patterns of women workers over a twenty-thirty year period. The Wolfson study used information from 306 college women, and the Mulvey study looked at the career patterns of 475 high school graduates. However, no studies of the career patterns of a national sample of women representative of the entire population were located in the literature.

Osipow (1968) suggested:

> The career pattern concept suggests that the life cycle imposes different vocational tasks on people at various times of their lives. Attention to career choice as a one-shot decision occurring in adolescence reflects only a segment of significant vocational behavior in the life of an individual. To fully comprehend a person's vocational life, the whole cycle must be observed (p. 120).

Crites (1969) pointed out that:

> despite the cogency of the career pattern as both a theoretical and criterion variable during the years of the work life, few studies have been conducted on ways of defining and quantifying it since Miller and Form's work in the early 1950's (p. 591).

Career Pattern System and Research

Super's (1957) proposed system for designating women's career patterns was the most fully explicated system located in the literature. He reported that research with men identified four career patterns: stable, conventional, unstable, and multiple-trial. In the same publication, Super offered the following system of women's career patterns:

1. The stable homemaking career pattern--no work experience.

2. The conventional career pattern--work experience prior to marriage, then full-time homemaking.

3. The stable working career pattern--the single woman who continues to work full-time.

4. The double-track career pattern--the married woman who continues to work full-time.

5. The interrupted career pattern--sequence of working, homemaking for a period of years, then working while homemaking.

6. The unstable career pattern--in and out of the labor market at frequent intervals.

7. The multiple-trial career pattern--a succession of unrelated jobs.

Unfortunately, as Bernard (1971) points out, the proportion of women who can be classified according to the several patterns, either at any given moment or over the life span, is not known.

Mulvey (1963) attempted to apply Super's suggested system of career patterns for women. However, she dropped the seventh proposed pattern (the multiple-trial) and added two categories: the delayed work experience, where the first work experience follows an extended period of homemaking, and the family affiliated pattern, in which after marriage, the woman works for her spouse.

Mulvey used the career pattern framework to study 475 women who had graduated twenty to twenty-seven years previously from the public high schools of Providence, Rhode Island. She found that one-third of her sample fell into the stable homemaking and conventional patterns, but suggested that the work role is more central to woman's existence and more internalized than many writers would contend. Level of education and level of aspiration were the most important determinants of career pattern. The career patterns were closely related to the milestones of the life developmental cycle, i.e., marriage, children.

In the decade since the Mulvey study was conducted, many changes have occurred in women's participation in the labor force. More and more women are returning to work when their children leave home or when they enter school (Women's Bureau, 1972). Changes underway as a result of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the movements toward women's liberation and women's rights may be leading to changes in the work force.

Career Development Research

According to Holland and Whitney (1969), the elements of career development are vocational theory, vocational choice, and work history. In addition, they indicated that studies which focus on determinants, predictions, and classifications of vocational behavior and patterns of vocational preferences for various intervals of time comprise the research which is relevant to career development. The following discussion was organized around (1) vocational theory, (2) vocational choice, and (3) work history.

Vocational Theory. Although Osipow (1969) indicated that "most of the masculine-based tests and theories fail to really provide a useful vehicle for the understanding of the career development of women (p. 247)," some information is available in the literature. The Mulvey (1963) study cited above attempted to apply Super's theory to the career development of a group of high school graduates.

Kriger (1972) redefined Roe's (1957) personality theory of career choice to account for women's career development. She studied the careers of sixty-six women (twenty-two homemakers, twenty-two career women in female-dominated occupations, and twenty-two career women in male-dominated occupations) who were college graduates, married, living with their husbands, mothers of at least one child, and middle-class. She interpreted her results as supporting the contention that the primary vocational decision for these women was the decision between "working" and "not working," with the choice of a specific occupational area a secondary choice. The decision to have a career was seen as a function of the child-rearing mode of the parents of the person choosing the career (Roe's theoretical position relating early experiences that lead people to move toward or away from people to specific occupational choice), while the particular field of occupation and the level within it that a woman chooses to pursue was seen as a function of her level of achievement motivation.

Holland and Whitney (1968) used Holland's (1966) career typology to study the stability of vocational choices of college men and women. They found that over a period of eight to twelve months, 84 percent of the women's successive occupational choices were in the same major occupational class, while 69 percent of the men's choices were in the same major class. Possible interpretations of these results are that women are more vocationally mature at the college freshman level or that women perceive fewer options open to them and so make fewer changes among the limited number of choices available.

Wolfson (1972) studied Zytowski's (1969) postulate that women's vocational patterns may be distinguished in terms of three levels, derived from the combination of entry age(s), span, and degree of participation forming an ordinal scale of vocational patterns. The sample consisted of 306 college women who were studied twenty-five years after being in school. Vocational patterns were not predictable from information known about a student when she was a college freshman, but were predictable from data collected five years later. Variables related to education and marriage were the most powerful

predictors of vocational patterns. Husband's income, number of children, age of youngest child, and satisfaction with marriage also discriminated among vocational pattern groups.

Vocational Choice. As pointed out above (Osipow, 1968), it is more appropriate to think of a series of occupational choices rather than a single decision occurring in adolescence. Herr and Cramer (1972) indicate that expectations and stereotypes appear to influence vocational decision-making and that information that young people (both men and women) have regarding occupations is likely to be indirect and stereotypic. The research discussed below relates to vocational aspirations and expectations prior to entering the work force.

Studies with secondary students have indicated the following. Lever and Kuvlesky (1969) found that 7,775 black and white high school sophomores aspired to and expected to achieve high level occupations regardless of color, sex, or socioeconomic level. Fortner (1970) found that 40 percent of the stated occupational preferences (classified into four categories) of 400 junior and senior high school girls could be predicted using only intelligence test scores. Rezler (1967) found that pioneers (thirty-three high school girls expressing vocational choices in medicine, mathematics, and science) could be differentiated from traditionals (thirty-three high school girls expressing vocational choices in nursing and elementary teaching) on measures of interest, personality, and academic ability.

Several studies which looked at the vocational choices of college women were located. Harmon (1971) found that college women had considered a very restricted range of occupations during adolescence. Elton and Rose (1967) found that intellectual and personality differences were related to vocational choices.

Studies of traditional versus non-traditional vocational choices indicated the following. Tangri (1970) studied the occupational choices of 200 college women. She found that Role-Innovators (those whose choices were of occupations now dominated by men) aspired to a higher level of accomplishment in their field than Traditional choosers. They also expressed greater commitment to their vocations. She found that Traditionals tended more than Role-Innovators to displace their achievement concerns on to the future husbands. In a study of single women students in professional schools, Levine (1969) found a similar situation. Almost all women students in law and medicine (occupations now dominated by men) did not plan any withdrawal from the labor force, while the majority of those students in nursing and teaching planned to withdraw from the labor force when they had young children to care for. In addition, the women in nursing and teaching planned to devote time and energy in the future to marriage perhaps in reaction to their feelings that they were treated as members of low status groups within the university.

Studies of career saliency (importance to the person of his/her career) indicated the following. Masih (1967) found that men college students (N=68), significantly more frequently than women college students (N=118) were high

on career saliency. However, those women who showed high career saliency showed a career motivational pattern as high as that for men in this category. In contrast, low career salient women indicated a considerably greater lack of career motivation than the low saliency group of men. Almquist (1969) studied the occupational choices of one class in a woman's college of a medium-sized university over the four years of their college experience. She found support for an enrichment hypothesis, with broader learning experiences leading to a less stereotyped version of the female role in which work in a high level career was a significant part. Career salient atypical choosers (women who wanted to enter occupations in which over 70 percent of the workers were male) had more work experience and more varied work experience related to their ultimate career choices than did non-career salient, typical choosers. Their mothers more often had a consistent history of working, and their college professors and people in the occupation had influenced and persuaded them to pursue an important career.

A study of socialization and career orientation among black (N=28) and white (N=45) college freshmen women was reported by Turner (1972). She found that blacks were far likelier than whites to expect full-time paid employment, with 54 percent of the blacks, but only 16 percent of the whites reporting such expectations, while 53 percent of whites and 21 percent of blacks expected to be homemakers, working for pay, if at all, only before children were born or after they had grown. There was no differentiation of these expectations by socioeconomic status.

Rossi (1965) reported that, of 3,500 women college graduates of the class of 1961, one-fifth had no career goals other than homemaking. Not quite half reported long-range career goals in traditional fields in which women predominate. Only seven percent were pioneers with long-range career goals in predominantly masculine fields.

A number of follow-up studies on women college students have been reported. Harmon (1970) studied the career commitment of 169 women ten to fourteen years after college entrance. Differences between the "career committed" and "non-committed" groups were found, but none of them offered a basis for predicting career commitment before women begin programs of higher education.

Watley and Kaplan (1971) reported a follow-up study in 1965 of 883 women who had won National Merit Scholarships during the years 1956-1960. They found that 85 percent of the women said that they definitely planned on having a career. Those seeking an immediate career scored higher on scholastic ability tests than those who either planned no career or who planned to delay working. Many more women, regardless of their plans, expressed sex discrimination problems than expressed other problems that interfered with making and implementing their plans.

The topic of home-career conflicts has been subjected to study. Gray-Shellberg, Villareal, and Stone (1972) found that men and women, college students and adults, expected women to subordinate their interests to those of a

fiance or husband. Responses reflected strong societal expectations that a woman shall be supportive of a man and not seek self-expression through a career.

Farmer and Bohn (1970) studied the level of career interest in women and the relationship to home-career conflict reduction. They designated six scales of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Women as Career scales and eight as Home scales. They found that scores on Career scales were increased and scores on Home scales were decreased when fifty working women (twenty-five married, twenty-five single) were instructed to respond as though men liked intelligent women, men and women were promoted equally in business and the professions, and raising a family well was very possible for a career woman. Whether the responding woman was married or single did not affect the responses. The authors concluded that the level of vocational interest in women, irrespective of their marital status, would be raised if home-career conflict were reduced.

Work History. Factors thought to influence the labor force participation of women have been grouped by Bowen and Finegan (1969) into four categories: (1) attitudes toward work; (2) expected rate of earnings in the labor market; (3) the implicit value to the family of non-labor market activity; and (4) the family's financial and human resources. Kreps (1971) summarized the variables related to female labor force participation into the following three categories: (1) age; (2) educational attainment; and (3) husband's income. The Shea, Spitz, and Zeller (1970) report indicated that marital status, ages of children, educational attainment, color, and attitudes toward home and work were important determinants of labor force participation.

Astin and Myint (1971) found that educational attainment and marital-familial status best predicted whether young women (age twenty-three) would choose to pursue careers in the sciences, professions, and teaching, or to be housewives and office workers. Mulvey (1963) found that, for a group of Rhode Island women in their early forties, the most important determinants of career patterns were level of education and level of aspirations.

Astin (1969) studied 1,657 women who earned their doctorates in the United States during 1957 and 1958 (86 percent of the total group). She found that 91 percent of them were in the labor force and 81 percent were working full time. Women who interrupted their careers did so because of childbearing and childrearing; the median length of time for such interruptions was fourteen months. Over half the women doctorates had been or were still married at the time of the survey; the married women doctorates had fewer children than women in the general population.

Summary

In summarizing the information available on women's career patterns and women's career development, three points stand out. Much of the information available is on women with at least some college education, and as Kievit (1972) pointed out, more study is needed of women who do not fall into this

category. A second point is that much of the available information on women's careers is in terms of aspirations and expectations of students, rather than accomplishments of workers. A third point is the limited amount of information available on the career patterns that specific women have followed.

Objectives of the Study

This study was designed to provide information on the career patterns of a national sample of women, both white and black, ages thirty to forty-four, to the point in their lives when the data were collected. The information includes (1) the proportion of women who can be classified into each career pattern in the system(s) and (2) the relationships of career development variables to the career patterns.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The data for this study were obtained from the data bank of a longitudinal study on labor market experience that is being conducted by the Center for Human Resource Research, (CHRR), The Ohio State University, under a contract with the United States Department of Labor. Herbert S. Parnes is the director of the project.

POPULATION, SAMPLE, PROCEDURES FOR SAMPLING

The CHRR is studying the labor market experience of four subsets of the United States population: men forty-five to fifty-nine years of age, women thirty to forty-four years of age, and young men and women fourteen to twenty-four years of age. For each of the four population groups, a national probability sample of the non-institutional civilian population was drawn by the Bureau of Census from the 235 areas that constituted the primary sampling units in the experimental Monthly Labor Survey conducted between early 1964 and late 1966 (Shea, Spitz, and Zeller, 1970; Shea, Roderick, Zeller, and Kohen, 1971). Each of the four sets of data has a sample of approximately 5,000 persons.

The present study used the data from 4,996 women in the thirty to forty-four year old data set. Black women were deliberately oversampled (in terms of the percentage of the total population) in order to provide large enough groups for black-white comparisons in the CHRR studies. The sample contained 3,606 white and 1,390 black women. If estimates of population parameters (black and white) were desired, as in Shea, Spitz, and Zeller (1970), a weighting procedure would take into account the non-proportional sampling procedure. Since total population estimates were not the objective of this study, all calculations were done separately for blacks and whites. Thus a weighting procedure was not used.

DATA AND INSTRUMENTATION

Interviews were conducted by members of the Bureau of the Census staff with each of the women in the sample in 1967. All interview information was recorded on a "Survey of Work Experience" form which covered the following topics: current labor force status; work experience in 1966 and before 1966; attitudes toward work and toward women's roles; marital and family history; health; education and training; and assets and income. Data from the interviews were used to determine career patterns and to look at relationships between career development variables and career patterns as discussed below.

After publishing this study in January, 1974 as Research and Development Series No. 95, The Center staff was made aware of a coding error in the data which affected the determination of career patterns, therefore necessitating this revision.

Career Patterns

After two attempts to implement a career pattern system ended in an incomplete analysis, it was decided that more information about the work intensity between milestones (leaving school, marriage, and first child) was needed. This information, with the added condition that the Super (1957) pattern system could be derived by combining categories, provided the classification systems reported below with both empirical and theoretical roots.

Work Intensity

The distribution of percent of time spent in the labor force between milestones was graphed for two periods: between leaving school and present, and between first child and present. Similar distributions were tabled for the period between school and marriage and between marriage and first child. The percent of time spent in the labor force was calculated by dividing the number of years a woman worked at least six months or more by the total number of years within that period and multiplying by 100. Thus, if a woman worked at least six months or more each year for six years out of a possible eight years between leaving school and her first marriage, she would have a value of (6/8) x 100 or 75 percent on this variable. In the graphs, the abscissa is the percent of time employed during the period, and the ordinate is the proportion of women in the sample falling into each percentage category.

A procedure in calculating these graphs may have underrepresented the extreme lower end (0-10 percent) of the distributions. This occurred because, if the data were recorded as missing or not appropriate, the women were not included in the calculations.

There were two possible ways in which data could be missing from the sample. In the first case where data was missing, the woman had responded earlier that she had never worked and therefore was not questioned as to the length of time she worked between any given milestone. In the second case, the woman being interviewed may not have responded to questions concerning labor force experience, or the data may have been lost in the transition from questionnaires to data bank. The data missing in these cases could have resulted in data not being available for a working woman. No attempt was made to distinguish between those women who never worked and those who did not have data recorded. It is known, however, that over 200 women responded that they had never worked and therefore would fall in the former category. The result of this procedure in graphing work intensity may be that the extreme lower end (0-10 percent) of the distribution may be underrepresented.

Figure 1 presents the distribution of women, by color, falling in each work intensity category for the period between school and present (total possible employment period). The overall picture from the distribution is that the majority of women (black or white) worked less than half the total possible time. Although the same proportion of black women (.17) and white women (.17) appeared in the no or very little work experience category (0-10) percent), a greater concentration of black women worked 50 percent or more of the time since leaving school (.53 to .36). In order to determine during which periods in their lives the women who had worked were employed and where the differences between black and white women occurred, a further work intensity breakdown by milestones was performed.

The analysis performed on the work intensity between leaving school and the first marriage is presented in Table 1. Only women who were ever married (4,173) were included in the calculations; this included women who were widowed, divorced, separated from husband, and/or remarried. Note that black women worked less than white women in the period between school and marriage, although the average length of time, approximately three years, between leaving school and marriage was the same for both black and white women. The average age for leaving school was sixteen for blacks and seventeen for whites.

Table 1 also presents the work intensity distribution between the milestones of marriage and first child. Women who were not married and those married without children were excluded, leaving 1,861 women for whom data were reported. The mean elapsed time for this period was two years for the white sample and a year and a half for the black sample. A smaller proportion of women worked during this period than before marriage; 21 percent of the black women did not work during this period, compared with 18 percent of the white women.

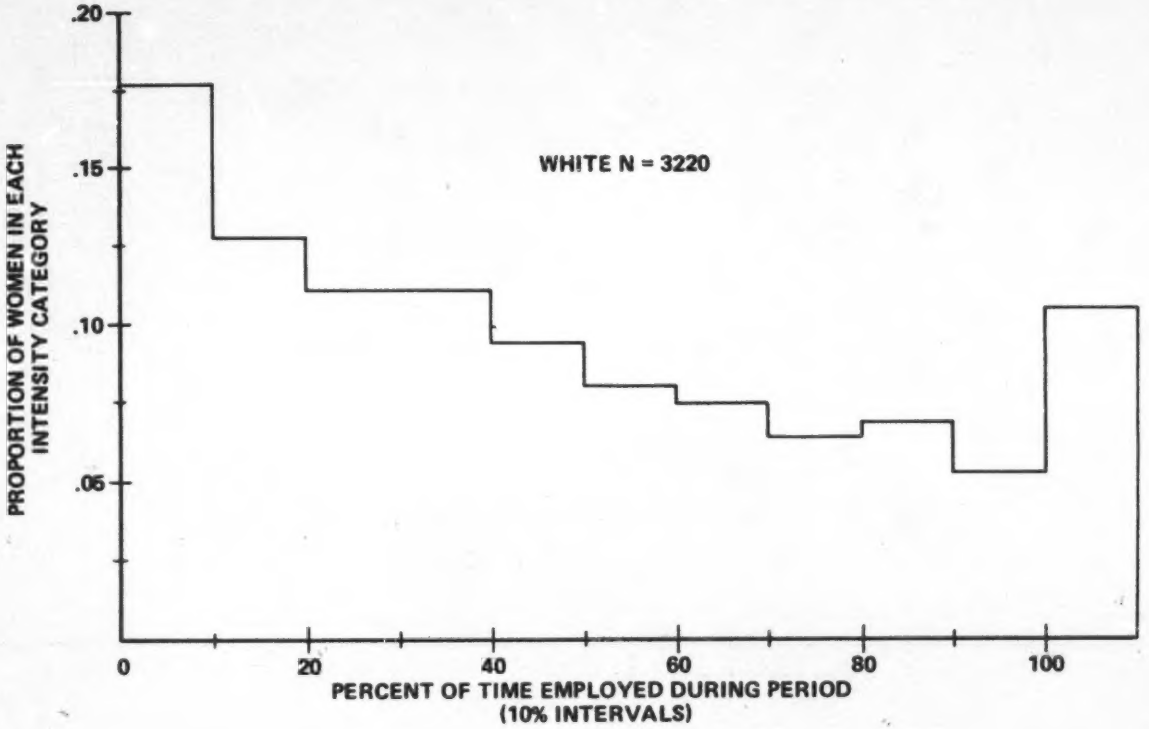
The work intensity from first child to present is presented in Figure 2. The average length of this time period is sixteen years with 3,433 women included in this graph. (This group includes a number of single women who had responsibility for a child and a number of women who reported data for this period but not for the period between marriage and child.) It is seen that the black women contributed a greater percent of their lives to the work force during this period than the white women. Of the white women, 29 percent worked less than 10 percent of this time. The impression that emerges for this period (1951-1967) is that of a woman who dropped out of the labor force after the birth of her first child. While this was the case for many white women, the opposite was true of many black women. This was the period in their lives when many first entered the work force.

Career Pattern Classification Technique

The classification technique, detailed below, established the following general mutually exclusive groups. (See Figure 3 for a tree description of these groups.) Super's six category system could be derived from the new schema with little difficulty.

Figure 1

Distribution of Work Intensity by Color for Period Between School and Present



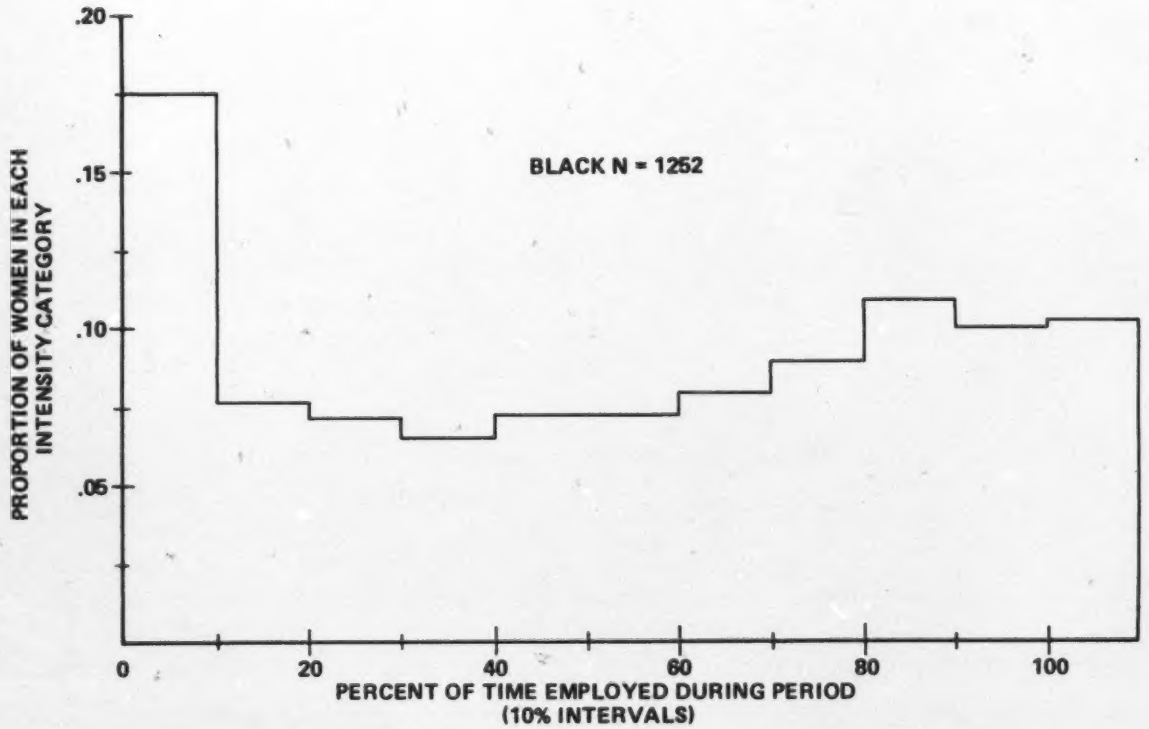


Table 1

Proportion of Women in Each Work Intensity Category by Color for Periods Between School and Marriage and Marriage and First Child

Period Between School and Marriage

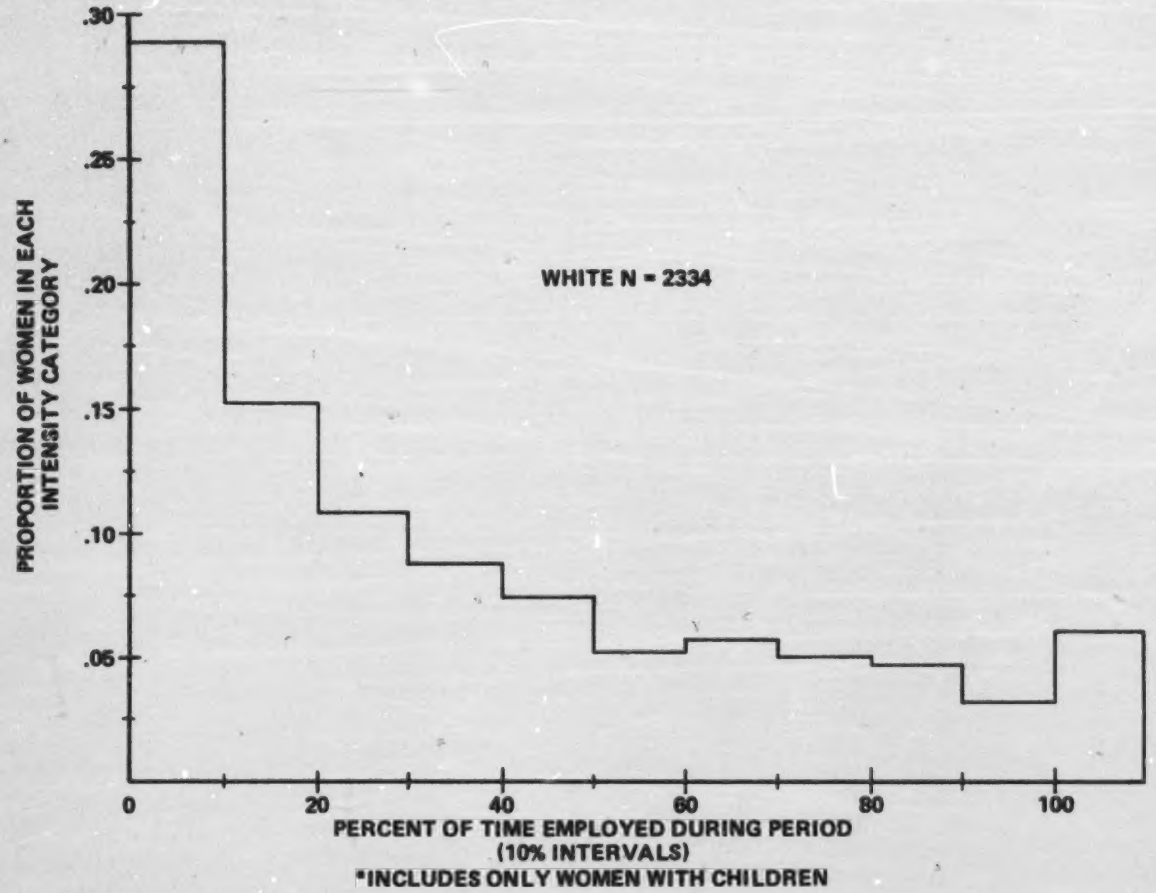
	Did Not Work (0-10%)	Some Work (10-99%)	Continuous Work (100%)	TOTAL
White N=3046	.299	.120	.580	1.00
Black N=1127	.482	.154	.365	1.00

Period Between Marriage and First Child

	Did Not Work 0-10%)	Some Work (10-99%)	Continuous Work (100%)	TOTAL
White N=1574	.176	.288	.536	1.00
Black N=287	.216	.209	.575	1.00

Figure 2

Distribution of Work Intensity by Color for Period Between First Child and Present*



*INCLUDES ONLY WOMEN WITH CHILDREN

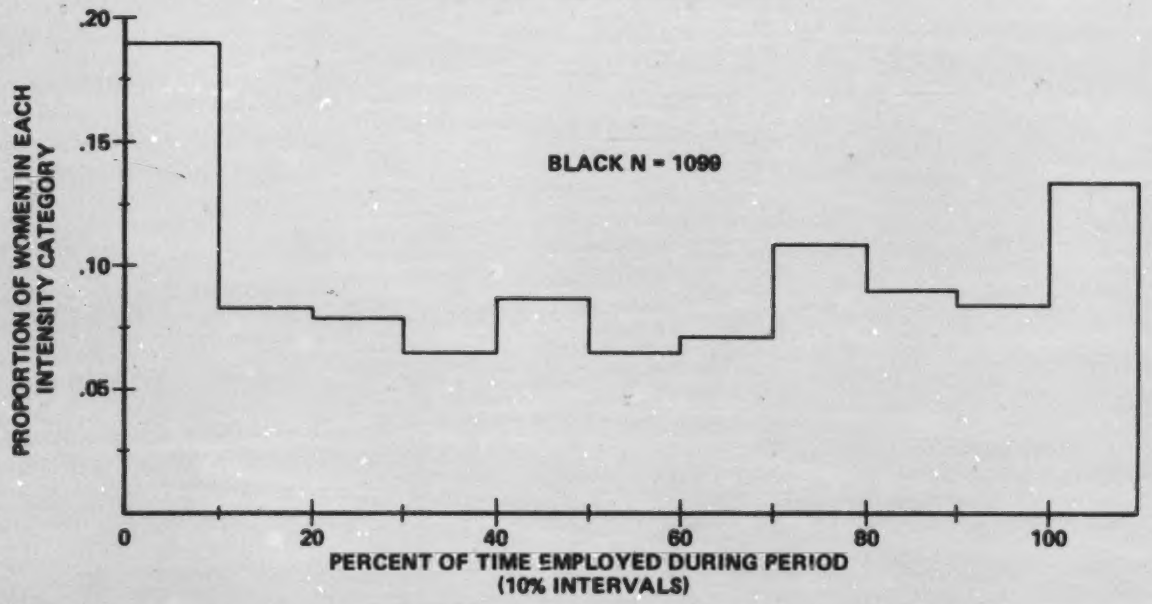
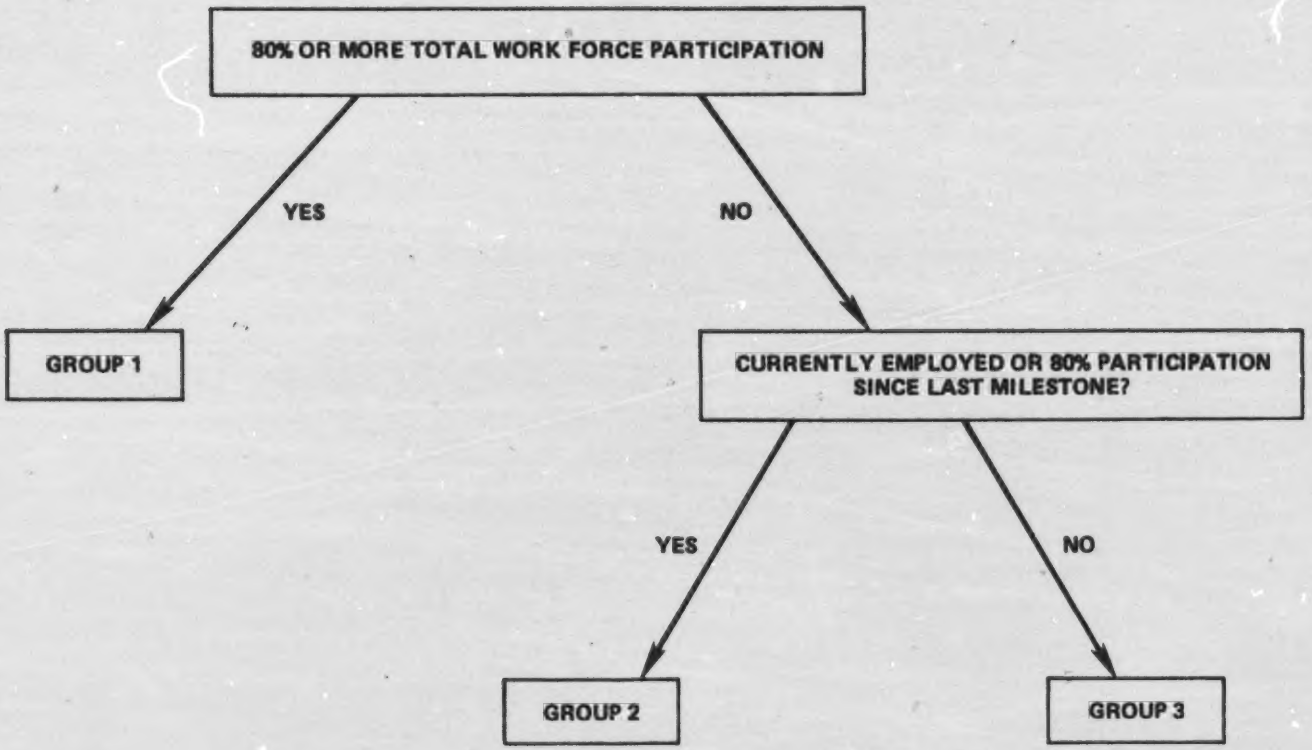


Figure 3

Tree Diagram Showing Breakdown into Major Groups



Group 1 consisted of all women who worked continuously for the time period since leaving school to the time when the data were collected. The definition of continuous work experience was specified as an 80 percent contribution. This decision was influenced both by the distribution of women in the groups and the desire to have a stringent, but not absolute, criterion for "continuous working." The 80 percent cut-off for "continuous working" may be seen as too stringent a criterion, especially for a married woman with children. However, with the work intensity variable used, where working six months or more of the year classified a woman as having worked that year, it would be possible for a woman to be out of work for almost a full year and still be considered as continuously working. With this established, it is seen that the criterion is not as stringent as it first may have appeared.

The second general grouping (Group 2) consisted of women who were currently working and who did not fall into the career work pattern (Group 1). In terms of criteria, the women were either currently employed or had worked some significant portion of the time since the last milestone. The second part of this criterion was needed so that women who were temporarily unemployed would be included in this group. As with the definition of "continuous working" in Group 1, the definition of what was meant by "significant contribution" was specified as an 80 percent contribution to the work force since the last milestone.

The third major group is the not continuously or currently working group. This group contained all women not falling into Groups 1 and 2. The woman in this group may have worked until her last milestone (in many cases this was her first child after marriage), but from that point on worked only sporadically or not at all.

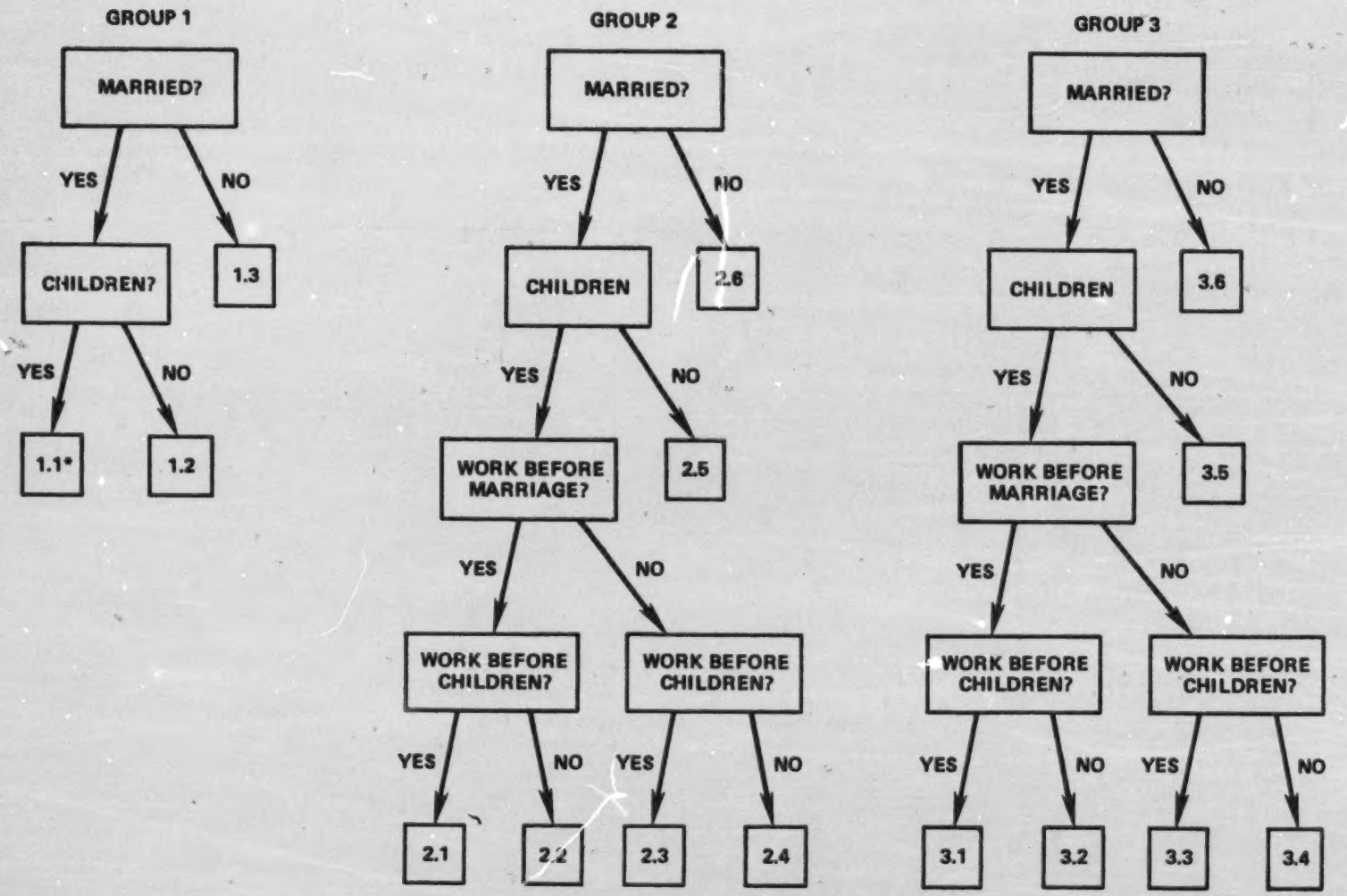
The three major groups established, a further breakdown of career patterns within groups was done by classifying women by milestones (first marriage and first child) and work force participation between milestones. The size of the group and the logical relation to other patterns were also considerations.

The first major group to be partitioned was Group 1. It was assumed that these women worked during all periods between the milestones of marriage and children and, therefore, the breakdown occurred only by milestones--that is, whether the woman was ever married or ever had children. The final divisions of patterns within this group are shown in Figure 4.

The second major group consisted mainly of women currently employed and a few (eight) who were currently unemployed but who had made a "significant contribution" to the work force by working six months or more per year during at least 80 percent of the years since the last milestone. The breakdown into patterns was similar to the Group 1 breakdown except the patterns were further broken down by whether or not the woman contributed to the labor force between milestones. The amount needed for a "contribution" between milestones was 80 percent of time in the work force. This value (80 percent) was chosen in order to be consistent with the preceding choice of cut-off

Figure 4

Tree Diagram Showing Derivations of Career Patterns from 3 Major Groups



points. Table 1, the distribution of work intensity between school and marriage and between marriage and child, showed that the effect would be slight if this value were set anywhere between 10 percent and 99.9 percent. The number of women in this group who were unmarried with children was small (two whites and twelve blacks, none having worked before having children), so these women were placed in similar patterns with the married women, the justification being that they had the same responsibilities for the child as the married women with children. The final construction of patterns is given in Figure 4.

The third group, the group not currently employed and with no significant contribution to the labor force after their last milestone, was broken down into patterns similar to the second group. The number of unmarried women with children was also quite small in this group (six whites and one black). None of those women had worked before acquiring the child and were placed with married women who had not worked prior to acquiring a child. A justification similar to that for Group 2 was made with this group.

Description of Work Intensity Groups and Patterns

Group 1 This group of patterns has in common a contribution to the work force of 80 percent or more of the years since leaving school.

- Pattern 1.1 Married with children
- Pattern 1.2 Married without children
- Pattern 1.3 Unmarried without children

Group 2 This group consisted of women who did not fall into Group 1, but were currently employed or had been employed 80 percent or more of the time since the last milestone, either school, marriage, or child.

- Pattern 2.1 Married with children--worked 80 percent or more of the periods between school and marriage and child.
- Pattern 2.2 Married with children--worked 80 percent or more between school and marriage, but did not work 80 percent or more of the time between marriage and child.
- Pattern 2.3 Married with children, did not work the 80 percent criterion before marriage, but worked 80 percent or more between marriage and child.
- Pattern 2.4 Married with children, worked less than 80 percent of the time between periods of school to marriage and marriage to child.

Pattern 2.5 Married without children
Pattern 2.6 Unmarried

Group 3 This group of patterns consisted of women who did not fall into either of the other two groups. That is, they were employed less than 80 percent of the time since school, not currently employed, and were employed less than 80 percent of the time since the last milestone. Patterns within this group are similar to those of Group 2.

Pattern 3.1 Similar to 2.1
Pattern 3.2 Similar to 2.2
Pattern 3.3 Similar to 2.3
Pattern 3.4 Similar to 2.4
Pattern 3.5 Similar to 2.5
Pattern 3.6 Similar to 2.6

Super's (1957) Classification Schema

The fifteen patterns previously derived in many cases did not have a direct correspondence to Super's (1957) hypothesized patterns, so the following mapping was performed to construct six of Super's career patterns. The seventh Super career pattern, the multiple-trial career, was dropped because of potential overlap with other patterns. The description of the patterns are from Super (1957).

1. The stable homemaking career pattern. This category included all women who marry while in or very shortly after leaving school or college having no significant work experience. This pattern was constructed by including all women who fell in pattern 3.4 (married, with children, no significant work experience before marriage or between marriage and first child) of the previous pattern breakdown. Added to this group were women falling into pattern 3.5 (married, no children) and working less than 80 percent of the time before marriage. These women had no significant work experience.

2. The conventional career pattern. In this pattern of working followed by homemaking, the young woman leaving school or college goes to work for a period of several months or several years. She worked in an occupation which is open to her without training beyond that which she obtained in her general education or in brief professional education substituted for general education, or in some relatively brief post-high school or post-collegiate education. Clerical work, teaching, nursing, occupational therapy, and secretarial work illustrate these types of occupations. They are generally viewed as stopgaps, but may first be thought of as life careers, with subsequent change of aspirations. They are often valuable as an opportunity for developing independence and a sense of being a person in

one's own right. Marrying after this relatively brief work experience, the young woman becomes a full-time homemaker. This pattern was derived by combining all women in patterns 3.1, 3.2, and 3.3, along with those in pattern 3.5 who worked more than 80 percent of the time before marriage. This group had work experience prior to marriage and/or child, then full-time homemaking.

3. The stable working career pattern. The sequence in this type of career pattern is one of entering the work force on leaving school, college, or professional school and embarking upon a career that becomes the woman's life work. She may perceive it as a life career from the start or she may at first view her working career as a preliminary to marriage, or a working career to resume after a period of full-time homemaking. This perception of working as a preliminary to marriage changes to a perception of working as the life career. This pattern corresponded directly to pattern 1.3 and consisted of single women who worked continuously.

4. The double-track career pattern. This is the pattern of the woman who goes to work after completing her education, marries, and continues with a double career of working and homemaking. She may take occasional time out for childbearing. The pattern may be most common near the upper and lower ends of the occupational scale, among women physicians and scientists, and among women domestics, presumably because the challenge of the work, or the income it produces, is important to the woman in question. The double-track career pattern included career patterns 1.1 and 1.2. These were married women, with and without children, who continued to work full time.

5. The interrupted career pattern. Here the sequence is one of working, full-time homemaking, followed by working while, or instead of, homemaking. The young woman works for some time, then marries, and then, when her children are old enough for her to leave them, when financial needs--including those resulting from being widowed or divorced--or interest in working become dominant, she returns to work. If she has children, the age at which she decides they can be left may depend upon her socioeconomic status: the higher the level of the family, the older and more independent the children must be before the mother may believe she may leave the home for work. The work to which the married woman returns may be that of her original working career, or it may be different: which it is depends upon what she has done with her training and experience during the full-time homemaking period, her interest in and ability to obtain refresher training, new interests that may have developed while a homemaker, retraining possibilities, and local manpower needs and requirements. By definition this career pattern requires the woman to have been married and to have had her employment career broken by either marriage, children, or both. In this respect,

patterns 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3 are similar to this pattern. Also, the women in pattern 2.5 fall into this category if they had worked a significant amount before marriage. The women were grouped to form this career pattern.

6. The unstable career pattern. For women this type of career pattern consists of working, homemaking, working again, returning to full-time homemaking, etc. It results most often from irregular economic pressures that make extra earnings necessary despite homemaking preferences or needs, or from poor health necessitating giving up employment, or from a combination of these. This pattern includes all women in patterns 2.4, 2.6, 3.6, and 2.5 with less than 80 percent work experience before marriage. These women are either single with less than a total significant contribution to the labor force or married with a significant contribution only after a child or after marriage if there were no children.

Career Development Variables

As pointed out earlier, a wide range of variables has been found to be linked to the career development of women. Among these variables are educational attainment, intellectual differences, interests, level of aspirations, role models, career saliency, age, socioeconomic status, marital status, family income, and attitudes toward work. Each study did not look at all the variables mentioned, so that no comprehensive picture or theory of women's career development has yet emerged.

For this study, also, the career development variables selected were limited to those available in the data bank. Thus, not all the variables that may be linked to women's career development were available for study. Of the information available, twenty-one variables were selected to be examined in relationship to the career patterns. The variables selected were ones that had shown promise in previous studies and are described below.

Education. This variable consisted of the number of years of formal education the woman had achieved. Grade school, high school, technical school, and graduate school contributed to this total. The range of years of education was from one to eighteen.

Relative Desirability of Occupational Assignment. As pointed out by Shea, Spitz, and Zeller (1970, pp. 245-248), the concept of socioeconomic status is usually associated with the role of adult men. Additionally, the Duncan Index, a measure of socioeconomic status, ranging from one to 99, was developed on male data. However, because the Duncan Index provides a good measure of the vertical position of the occupations of both men and women based on income and education, Shea, Spitz, and Zeller felt that it could be used as a measure of the relative desirability or attractiveness of occupational assignments.

In the Duncan Index, low prestige occupations have low scale numbers and high prestige occupations have high scale numbers. Some examples of this index are:

Duncan Index	Occupation
72	Teachers
64	Social and welfare workers
61	Secretaries, stenographers, typists
52	Bank tellers
46	Nurses, professional
44	File clerks
39	Retail sales workers
22	Practical nurses
21	Textile factory workers
17	Cosmetologists
16	Waiters and waitresses
15	Laundry and dry cleaning
13	Hospital attendants
11	Kitchen workers
10	Charwomen and cleaners
07	Private household workers

Two variables were selected: the Duncan Index for the woman's current job, or if not currently employed, the last job at which the woman had worked; and the Duncan Index for the job held since the birth of the first child. In many cases this may have been the same job.

Age at Milestones. This group of variables contained information on the ages at which each woman achieved the various milestones in her life. The milestones considered in this study were leaving school, first marriage, and birth of first child. Obviously, the age at first marriage or first child would not be recorded if the woman had never married or never had children.

Proportion of Time in Labor Force. These variables were derived for this study by taking the number of years a woman participated in the labor force six months or more and dividing by the total number of years between the various milestones. Thus, these variables contained information on the number of years each woman had been employed six months or more, either part-time or full time, as a percent of the total number of years in that period. Four variables were studied: the porportion of time spent in the labor force between leaving school and present; between leaving school and first marriage; between first marriage and first child; and between first child and present.

Income. Two variables were examined. The first, personal income, was the amount of money the woman earned herself. The second was the amount of family income. If the woman was single, the amounts were identical. If married, the family income was equal to the woman's income plus her family's income.

Family. These variables were related to the woman's family life. The first was the number of children the woman had acquired. The number of years of formal education of the woman's husband (if married) and father were examined as well as the Duncan Index of the husband and the head of her household when the woman was fifteen years old. These variables were scaled the same as similar variables for the women themselves.

Attitude. Four attitude items related to women's work roles were studied. They were: the attitude toward a woman working (1) if this is necessary for the livelihood of the family, (2) if the woman wants to work and her husband agrees, (3) if the woman wants to work and her husband disagrees, and (4) the perceived attitude of her husband toward her employment other than housewife. The first three items were scaled from 1 to 5, where a response of 1 meant definitely not all right, 2 meant probably not all right, 3 meant no opinion, 4 meant probably all right, and 5 meant definitely all right. The perceived attitude of husband toward wife's working was scaled from 1 to 5 where a response of 1 meant dislikes very much, 2 meant dislikes somewhat, 3 meant doesn't care either way, 4 meant likes somewhat, 5 meant likes very much.

Analysis of Career Development Variables

The data presented are means and standard deviations of the career development variables for each of the career patterns and Super's career patterns. Correlational data, calculated by using all pair-wise complete data, are presented. No parametric statistical tests such as analysis of variance were performed, but the reader is reminded that in samples of this size, small differences are statistically (but not always practically) significant.

Sophisticated statistical techniques were not used because of the difficulty with "missing" and "not appropriate" data. The "not appropriate" data resulted from questions that were predicated on the response given a previous question. For example, women who responded that they had never married were not asked about the number of years of education of their husband. The "missing" data consisted of responses that were not recorded or where the information was not known or refused by the respondent. Table 2 contains a tabulation of "missing" or "not appropriate" data for both black and white women for the selected variables. The data marked with an asterisk (*) are clearly missing; the questions should have been asked of every woman in the sample. An attempt was made to eliminate the "not appropriate" data from this "missing" data for the variables left unmarked, but this was not always possible. It should be noted that some variables that may be considered "important" in models of career development (Sewell, Haller, and Ohlendorf, 1970; Blau and Duncan, 1967), those of father's education and measures of father's socioeconomic status, had a large proportion of missing data. Thus, such models were not considered in this analysis.

Table 2

Incidence of "Missing" and "Not Appropriate" Data

Variable	Missing and Not Appropriate Data White (N=3606)	Black (N=1390)
Years of formal education	13*	8*
Duncan Index-current or last job	167	53
% of time worked between school and present	386	138
% of time worked between school and marriage	511	251
% of time worked between marriage and child	1580	810
% of time worked between first child and present	1272	291
Total number of children	0	0
Husband's education	636	613
Duncan index-husband	590	563
Father's education	114*	66*
Duncan index-head of household at 15	338*	172*
Age-left school	209*	101*
Age-first marriage	194	135
Age-first child	391	147
Personal income	67*	23*
Total family income	790*	223*
Attitude-work necessary	10*	4*
Attitude-she wants to work and husband agrees	11*	6*
Attitude-she wants to work and husband disagrees	12*	4*
Attitude-husband to wife working	2266	843

*Data should be available on all women (all data may be classified as missing)

Results and Implications

Data is presented in this section on the relationships of the career patterns that were derived in the previous section to the career development variables of education, relative desirability of occupational assignment, age at milestones, number of children, income, family related variables, and attitudes toward women working. In some cases these relationships may be viewed as face validity for the derived career pattern system. A limited range of implications have been drawn from these data because the variables selected for the original nanpower study did not provide a sufficiently broad range of information on variables related to career development (e.g., intellectual differences, interests, role models) to more completely specify the usefulness of the career patterns.

This section is presented in two parts; the first dealing with the career pattern system outlined on pages 12-20 (Figure 4), the second dealing with the system derived from Super (1957). No formal comparison between the two systems is presented; both may prove more or less useful depending upon the situation in which they are used. The purpose here was to present some baseline data on the career patterns of women and information on some of the factors that may have influenced the type of pattern followed by the women in each group.

Career Patterns and Groups

The sample of 4,472 women was divided into three major groups and fifteen patterns as outlined in the previous section. Analysis was performed for black and white women separately as the sample sizes were not proportional to representation in the total national population.

Color Differences

The fact that black women have been historically disadvantaged is documented elsewhere (Lerner, 1972, Women's Bureau, 1969) and it is not the purpose to present such facts here. While there were important similarities in the career patterns of whites and blacks, there were also differences. As shown in Table 3, the proportions of white women and black women in each of the career groups show a great deal more labor force participation for the black women. This may reflect societal disapproval of women in the dominant culture working outside the home (see Chafe, 1972, for the debate on "woman's place"). It may reflect the lower average income of the black man as compared to the white man (Women's Bureau, 1969).

Table 3

Distribution of Women in Career Groups and Patterns

	WHITE		BLACK	
	N	%	N	%
Career Group 1 (Continuous work experience)	582	18.1	370	29.5
Pattern 1.1 (Married, children)	328	10.2	278	22.2
Pattern 1.2 (Married, no children)	126	3.5	45	3.6
Pattern 1.3 (Single)	128	4.0	47	3.8
Career Group 2 (Currently employed, but not continuously employed)	1040	32.3	468	37.4
Pattern 2.1 (Married, children, worked before marriage, worked before children)	206	6.4	23	1.8
Pattern 2.2 (Married, children, worked before marriage, did not work before children)	295	9.2	81	6.5
Pattern 2.3 (Married, children, did not work before marriage, worked before children)*	86	2.7	21	1.7
Pattern 2.4 (Married, children, did not work before marriage, did not work before children)*	399	12.4	297	23.7
Pattern 2.5 (Married, no children)	35	1.1	26	2.1
Pattern 2.6 (Single, no children)	19	0.6	20	1.6
Career Group 3 (Not currently working, no significant work experience since last milestone)	1598	49.6	414	33.1
Pattern 3.1 (Married, children, worked before marriage, worked before children)	273	8.5	21	1.7
Pattern 3.2 (Married, children, worked before marriage, did not work before children)	525	16.3	88	7.0
Pattern 3.3 (Married, children, did not work before marriage, worked before children)*	92	2.9	15	1.2
Pattern 3.4 (Married, children, did not work before marriage, did not work before children)*	639	19.8	242	19.3
Pattern 3.5 (Married, no children)	47	1.5	16	1.3
Pattern 3.6 (Single, no children)	22	0.7	32	2.6
TOTAL	3220	100.0	1252	100.0

*Includes small number of single women with children.

In attempting to more specifically locate the proportional differences of white women and black women in the career patterns, it can be seen that, of the patterns that contained more than one-fifth of the women of either color group, two fell in Group 3 for the white women and one each fell in Group 3 and in Group 2 for the black women. Over one-fourth of the black women were in this last career pattern that included all women who had not worked regularly prior to marriage and children but did so after the birth of the first child.

For the white women, Pattern 1.1 (married, children, continuous work experience) contained over 18 percent of the sample; for the black women, over 29 percent of the sample was included in this pattern. These proportion differences further point up the large involvement with the labor force of the black women, especially those women who have children.

Age Differences

For the ages represented in this sample (thirty to forty-four), there were no differences in the percentages which fell into the career groups, but this may not have been the case if a wider span of age had been considered. For example, if younger women had been included in the sample, more women may have appeared in Career Group 1, while if more older women had been included there may have been a movement of women from Group 3 into Group 2 as children enter school or leave home. Because no differences were found, it was assumed that the sample was relatively homogeneous over the age span at which the women were interviewed; the variable of present or current age does not enter into any of the further discussions.

Career Development Variables

Each variable is discussed in terms of the total sample, the career groups, and the career patterns separately for each color group. The number of women that fell into some of the patterns is small, as low as eight women in pattern 2.6 for blacks, so interpretation of these patterns must be done with caution. The mean values for each of the variables discussed below are indicated in Table 4 while the mean and standard deviation for each variable are shown in Appendix A. Correlational data for the total sample of blacks and whites are presented in Table 5 while similar data for each career group separately are presented in Table 6. The reader is reminded that correlations were calculated on all pair-wise complete data so the number (n) included varies from cell to cell. Correlations for the attitude scales were not reported as they were all less than $\pm$ .10.

Education

The mean years of formal education for white women in the total sample was 11.4 and for black women it was 9.7. The mean education of the husbands of the white women (11.8) was slightly higher than the mean educational level

Table 7

Mean Values of Career Development Variables by Career Group and Career Pattern

		Group 1		Pattern 1.1		1.2		1.3		Group 2		Pattern 2.1		2.2		2.3		2.4		2.5		2.6		Group 3		Pattern 3.1		3.2		3.3		3.4		3.5		3.6		Total	
Variable	Color	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL
	N			338	279	126	46	128	47			210	23	334	89	100	26	439	348	91	89	33	28			570	29	656	191	191	16	731	276	99	23	23	49	3686	1369
Years of Education		11.9	10.1	11.5	9.7	12.0	11.5	12.8	11.0	11.3	9.9	12.0	11.7	11.5	8.9	12.1	10.8	10.8	8.7	10.6	8.7	11.9	10.7	11.2	9.3	11.9	10.2	11.7	9.4	12.3	10.1	10.4	9.3	10.5	9.2	8.7	8.5	11.4	9.7
Duncan Index Current or Last Job		43.9	24.0	40.2	22.3	48.6	30.9	50.8	27.5	37.1	21.1	42.7	33.7	37.2	21.0	42.7	23.8	33.5	20.8	31.3	15.5	41.1	21.4	38.3	16.6	42.4	23.3	41.5	17.8	41.3	16.7	35.2	16.4	37.6	14.9	33.8	12.0	39.3	20.8
Percent of Time Spent in Labor Force																																							
School—Present		94.1	93.1	92.1	92.5	96.3	95.4	97.8	94.8	41.8	46.5	61.2	56.7	42.6	52.5	46.5	61.7	33.7	40.8	48.9	49.8	61.3	48.9	25.3	24.3	43.7	49.8	26.9	36.3	33.5	31.8	12.8	15.8	36.8	32.7	16.8	22.4	43.0	52.5
School—Marriage		77.4	71.5	73.5	69.3	87.3	84.9	—	—	57.9	32.7	99.8	99.3	99.5	99.3	13.3	10.8	10.2	9.3	44.4	36.5	0.0	0.0	67.2	40.8	98.8	100.0	99.8	99.5	15.6	9.6	16.2	10.3	62.9	34.8	0.0	0.0	65.4	46.7
Marriage—Child		55.4	48.1	53.2	58.3	66.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	61.2	31.9	99.9	100.0	26.9	15.1	99.7	88.2	27.7	10.6	25.0	3.3	0.0	0.0	60.5	24.2	99.2	99.5	29.8	2.8	99.1	100.0	15.9	5.3	0.0	35.6	0.0	0.0	66.1	35.1
Child—Present		89.5	91.7	89.4	91.7	96.0	90.0	—	—	35.4	46.9	32.9	36.2	34.1	46.7	41.8	69.2	36.1	47.9	42.9	76.6	—	—	16.5	22.6	20.9	33.9	17.4	31.6	23.1	27.6	13.5	16.5	4.8	90.4	0.0	0.0	35.0	51.3
Number of Children		1.4	3.1	2.5	3.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.2	2.8	3.8	2.9	3.0	2.9	3.9	3.2	2.9	3.1	4.4	0.0	0.0	0.1	1.7	3.3	4.8	3.3	4.5	3.2	5.2	3.2	5.9	3.8	5.3	0.0	0.0	0.8	2.6	2.8	3.9
Husband—																																							
Educational Level		11.8	8.8	11.5	8.6	12.3	10.1	—	—	11.4	8.7	12.1	10.3	11.4	9.4	12.3	10.2	10.9	8.3	11.0	7.7	—	—	11.9	8.6	12.3	8.9	12.4	8.4	13.3	8.5	11.2	8.1	11.3	7.2	—	—	11.8	8.7
Duncan Index		41.3	22.4	38.8	21.9	47.8	24.7	—	—	39.7	23.4	44.9	31.7	41.4	28.5	43.6	32.9	35.1	21.1	38.5	26.0	—	—	43.6	20.3	46.2	25.4	44.9	19.6	53.6	19.3	40.7	19.7	38.5	28.6	—	—	42.1	22.1
Father—																																							
Educational Level		7.0	4.4	6.6	4.8	7.7	3.7	7.5	4.2	6.8	4.4	7.3	6.2	6.5	4.7	7.5	4.5	6.5	4.4	6.5	2.8	7.9	4.1	7.1	3.7	7.9	5.1	7.4	3.5	8.3	5.4	6.6	3.7	6.0	3.6	5.7	3.5	6.9	4.2
Duncan Index		30.5	16.2	27.8	16.8	32.4	17.1	36.5	17.7	30.3	16.8	36.5	23.1	29.9	12.7	30.8	16.5	27.2	16.0	27.8	16.1	41.6	14.9	31.5	15.2	32.4	16.8	32.7	13.6	36.5	21.9	29.8	15.2	30.3	16.6	24.7	14.3	30.9	15.7
Age—																																							
Left School		17.8	16.8	17.4	16.3	17.4	17.8	19.0	17.2	16.9	16.2	17.4	17.3	16.9	16.2	17.7	15.8	16.5	16.1	16.1	15.9	16.4	16.3	17.1	16.9	17.3	17.3	17.2	16.8	18.0	17.3	16.7	16.7	17.6	14.9	17.5	16.7	17.1	16.2
Married		21.4	20.8	20.6	20.1	23.5	23.0	—	—	19.3	19.0	20.4	20.5	20.2	19.9	19.1	18.7	18.0	18.4	20.8	22.0	—	—	20.3	19.3	20.9	20.7	21.5	20.5	19.5	17.6	18.9	18.7	23.5	21.3	—	—	20.1	19.5
First Child		23.1	20.1	23.1	20.0	25.0	18.0	22.0	21.6	21.3	19.5	22.6	22.6	21.9	19.5	21.4	22.9	20.0	18.9	28.5	24.7	27.5	18.7	22.6	19.5	23.7	22.8	23.7	20.0	22.8	19.8	21.1	18.9	24.0	22.7	19.5	21.1	22.2	19.8
Income—																																							
Personal		3694	2534	3003	2369	3974	3376	5173	3695	2332	1911	2246	2869	2275	1912	2523	2420	2267	1807	3004	1870	3181	2120	262	312	227	290	274	328	335	99	267	389	160	300	51	82	1481	1526
Family		9651	5370	10196	5346	10983	7442	8945	3391	9360	5646	10086	7220	9809	5882	10205	6960	8875	5280	8049	6963	3727	4353	8945	4406	9628	4677	9163	5004	11044	5251	8137	4467	8880	3686	3875	2386	9036	5109
Attitude—																																							
Work Necessary		4.5	4.5	4.7	4.6	4.5	4.3	4.3	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.4	4.5	4.1	4.3	4.6	4.7	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.2	4.4	4.5	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.2	4.7	4.2	4.1	4.5	4.5
She Wants to Work and Husband Agrees		3.9	4.1	4.1	4.2	3.5	3.8	3.5	4.2	3.9	4.1	4.1	3.7	3.9	4.3	4.1	4.4	3.8	4.1	3.5	3.8	3.8	4.1	3.5	4.0	3.7	4.1	3.6	4.2	3.6	3.4	3.5	4.0	3.6	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.7	4.1
She Wants to Work and Husband Disagrees		1.9	2.2	2.0	2.2	1.7	2.1	1.9	2.4	1.8	2.2	1.9	2.0	1.9	2.3	1.9	1.9	1.7	2.2	1.5	2.0	1.8	2.6	1.5	2.0	1.7	2.0	1.5	2.1	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.9	1.6	1.5	2.2	2.4	1.7	2.1
Husband to Wife Working		2.2	2.4	2.2	2.4	2.2	2.5	—	—	2.4	2.3	2.5	2.7	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.7	2.2	—	—	2.6	2.5	2.3	3.3	2.2	3.0	3.7	1.0	2.8	2.3	—	3.6	—	—	2.4	2.4

Table 5

Pairwise Complete Data Correlation Matrix of Selected Variables for White and Black Women

	Personal Income	Total Family Income	Duncan Index—Father	Duncan Index—Husband	Age—Left School	Age—First Marriage	Age—First Child	% of Time Worked—School to Present	Years of Formal Education	Father's Education	Total Number of Children	Husband's Education
Duncan Index—Current or Last Job	.20 .57	.29 .44	.30 .19	.39 .39	.41 .41	.23 .14	.26 .26	.18 .13	.57 .61	.29 .24	-.15 -.22	.45 .45
Personal Income		.24 .55	.04 .13	-.01 .26	.12 .35	.03 .12	-.04 .19	.52 .42	.16 .49	.02 .21	-.27 -.32	.01 .36
Total Family Income			.19 .08	.34 .38	.19 .29	.07 .08	.09 .20	.09 .11	.29 .41	.15 .23	-.02 -.19	.36 .46
Duncan Index—Head of Household at 15				.30 .21	.29 .12	.15 .04	.15 .07	.02 .02	.38 .19	.39 .24	-.10 -.09	.35 .21
Duncan Index—Husband					.30 .26	.16 .13	.18 .18	.06 .08	.41 .38	.26 .18	-.08 -.22	.58 .48
Age—Left School						.36 .44	.32 .44	.11 .07	.71 .61	.30 .20	-.14 -.21	.46 .35
Age—First Marriage							.78 .53	.27 .16	.27 .24	.12 .02	-.24 -.28	.25 .12
Age—First Child								.26 .07	.28 .32	.13 .12	-.31 -.34	.26 .25
% of Time Worked Between School and Present									.17 .12	.05 .05	-.39 -.27	.09 .05
Years of Formal Education										.42 .31	-.15 -.29	.59 .56
Father's Education											-.05 -.08	.36 .33
Total Number of Children												-.12 -.25

*Cells are composed as follows: Correlation for White Women
Correlation for Black Women

Table 6

Correlations Among Career Development Variables by Career Group and Color

VARIABLE		Personal Income		Total Family Income		Duncan Index Father		Duncan Index Husband		Age—Left School		Age—First Marriage		Age—First Child		Years of Education		Father's Education		Number of Children		Husband's Education	
Color		WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL	WH	BL
*Career Groups																							
Duncan Index Current or Last Job	1	.41	.72	.22	.59	.29	.14	.32	.49	.36	.56	.14	.19	.23	.37	.58	.69	.29	.33	-.24	-.30	.45	.56
	2	.29	.56	.41	.38	.27	.27	.39	.33	.40	.41	.24	.09	.25	.28	.57	.59	.26	.23	-.10	-.21	.44	.46
	3	.02	.06	.25	.24	.33	.19	.38	.39	.43	.18	.24	.08	.28	.09	.57	.43	.31	.12	-.12	-.04	.45	.33
Personal Income	1			.29	.73	.18	.19	.11	.42	.22	.48	.06	.17	-.02	.32	.32	.62	.12	.28	-.31	-.36	.11	.52
	2			.44	.56	.07	.16	.01	.27	.14	.37	.09	.11	.04	.24	.17	.53	.01	.22	-.14	-.29	.08	.48
	3			.07	.22	-.00	-.05	.01	.04	-.03	.07	-.00	-.01	-.02	-.02	.02	.15	.03	.05	-.03	-.08	.01	.07
Total Family Income	1					.09	.05	.31	.42	.04	.37	.01	.09	.06	.32	.17	.52	.09	.29	.05	-.25	.24	.49
	2					.19	.07	.34	.34	.26	.23	.16	.13	.16	.21	.33	.35	.17	.16	-.00	-.21	.38	.51
	3					.23	.11	.37	.35	.21	.26	.04	-.00	.08	.08	.32	.31	.17	.25	-.00	-.06	.39	.38
Duncan Index—Father	1							.20	.19	.24	.16	.12	.09	.22	.16	.43	.16	.40	.28	-.16	-.11	.27	.20
	2							.29	.24	.26	.18	.14	-.07	.14	.07	.34	.23	.37	.25	-.11	-.04	.32	.26
	3							.32	.19	.34	.07	.16	-.01	.15	.00	.40	.21	.39	.18	-.09	-.04	.38	.15
Duncan Index—Husband	1									.23	.29	.15	.16	.19	.33	.34	.45	.19	.19	-.21	-.29	.56	.54
	2									.31	.28	.19	.07	.21	.16	.37	.37	.23	.16	-.02	-.19	.52	.48
	3									.32	.19	.14	.19	.17	.07	.45	.34	.29	.18	-.10	-.19	.60	.43
Age—Left School	1											.25	.49	.26	.48	.63	.66	.27	.25	-.12	-.29	.42	.43
	2											.48	.40	.41	.37	.73	.63	.28	.18	-.08	-.21	.48	.33
	3											.33	.43	.29	.48	.74	.51	.34	.17	-.13	-.09	.45	.31
Age—First Marriage	1													.72	.55	.21	.32	.04	.06	-.32	-.29	.23	.19
	2													.81	.49	.33	.18	.15	-.07	-.18	-.29	.29	.06
	3													.77	.57	.26	.20	.13	.09	-.24	-.25	.23	.11
Age—First Child	1															.26	.45	.08	.25	-.33	-.31	.25	.37
	2															.34	.29	.15	.07	-.26	-.37	.32	.24
	3															.27	.20	.12	.07	-.35	-.33	.24	.18
Years of Education	1																	.43	.32	-.16	-.39	.53	.63
	2																	.39	.33	-.08	-.29	.57	.55
	3																	.43	.26	-.14	-.13	.62	.52
Father's Education	1																			-.11	-.14	.29	.33
	2																			-.06	-.04	.35	.38
	3																			-.05	-.05	.37	.26
Number of Children	1																					-.17	-.40
	2																					-.08	-.24
	3																					-.14	-.14

*Numbers refer to:
1. Continuous work experience
2. Currently employed, but not continuously employed
3. Not currently working, no significant work experience since last milestone

of the women themselves; for the black women, the mean educational level of their husbands was lower (8.7) than their own. For both color groups, the women's educational level was approximately five years higher than their fathers' educational level.

The mean number of years of education, for both black and white women, increased from Group 3 to Group 1. This can be interpreted to mean that the women with more years of education also worked a greater proportion of their lives. The same pattern holds for the husbands of the black women; that is, the greater the labor force participation of the women, the higher the educational attainment of the husband. For the white women, on the other hand, the highest average educational level of the husbands is in Group 3, the group with the least labor force experience. This may mean that this career group was heterogeneous for the white women, with some women not participating in the work force because their husbands had a high level of education, a good job, and a high income and another group not working because of poor job preparation and opportunity. This possibility cannot be ruled out, as the standard deviation of husband's education is higher for white women in Group 3 than the other two groups. Further research is needed to more accurately describe these differences.

Although the number of single women in the sample was small and these results should be treated with caution, it was found that single women in Groups 1 and 2, continuously working or currently employed, had a higher mean educational level than the married women within their respective groups. This is not true of the single women who were not currently employed or continuously working. In this curious pattern, the single women had the lowest mean level of education of any pattern.

Another rather large difference in educational attainment was between the white women in Groups 2 and 3 who were married, had children, and did not work before marriage. In both groups the women who worked between marriage and first child had a mean of one and half years more education than those who did not work in this period.

Similar differences were found with respect to mean educational level of the husband. The correlation between the woman's and her husband's education for the total sample was .59 for whites and .56 for blacks. This result was not greatly changed when similar statistics were computed for each group separately. The differences among patterns with respect to father's educational level were smaller than those of husband's or the woman's educational level. The fathers of the single women (patterns 1.3 and 2.6) had more education than the fathers of the women who were married, had children, and had continuously worked or were currently working (patterns 1.1 and 2.1). The correlation between father's education and the woman's education was .42 for whites and .31 for blacks. The correlation between father's and husband's education was .36 and .33. Many women had missing data on both father's and husband's educational level, and this data may not be trustworthy.

Relative Desirability of Occupational Assignment

Before presenting the data on the Duncan Index, it must be noted that this measure may or may not be appropriate for occupations held by women. The index was validated entirely on male workers (Reiss, 1961), and it is not known if it is valid for the occupations of female workers. The data are presented with reservation as an informative measure that may give some insight into the distinction between career groups and patterns.

The Duncan Index, as described earlier, was used as the indicator of the relative desirability of occupational assignment. The mean Duncan Index for the current or last job for the white sample was thirty-nine, which is roughly the equivalent of the retail sales worker. For black women, the mean Duncan Index for the current or last job was twenty, which is the level of factory operatives and service occupations. For both color samples, the mean Duncan Index for husbands' occupation was slightly higher than that of women themselves. The mean Duncan Index of the fathers of the white women was approximately eight points lower than that of the women themselves, while for the black women, their fathers' mean Duncan Index was approximately five points lower.

For both white and black women, the Duncan Index for the current or last job was highest for Group 1, the group with the most work experience. The average Duncan Index for white women in this group was twenty points higher than for black women, however. For the black women, Group 2 (intermediate work experience) had the second highest average Duncan Index, with Group 3 (least work experience) the lowest. This was reversed for the white women, with Group 3 having a higher average Duncan Index than Group 2. These results are similar to those of the education level, the correlation between the two being .57 for white women and .61 for black women.

For both white and black married women in Group 1, the Duncan Index of the woman resembled that of her husband. The women in Groups 2 and 3 showed Duncan Indexes lower than their husbands'. The Duncan Index of the fathers averaged five to ten points below that of the women themselves and also of their husbands. There were very few differences among the career groups in terms of the reported fathers' Duncan Index, with the fathers of the white women having an average approximately fifteen points higher than that of the black women's fathers. The Duncan Index of the woman was only moderately related to that of her father with a correlation of .30 for white women and .19 for black women.

From the career pattern (Group 1) data it is noted that unmarried women who worked continuously had a higher Duncan Index than any other pattern in this or any other group. This situation did not hold for the unmarried women in Groups 2 and 3. The women with children in Groups 2 and 3 had a higher Duncan Index than those without children, with the exception of women with children who did not work before marriage or children. In Group 1, however, the women without children had a higher Duncan Index than those with children.

For white women in Group 2 a fairly large difference appeared between women who worked between marriage and first child and those who did not, with those working in this period having a higher Duncan Index for the current job. It is also interesting to note that the pattern with the highest husband's Duncan Index appears for white women in pattern 3.3, the women who may be classified as housewives having not worked continuously or being currently employed, having children, and being married. The unmarried white women who worked continuously also had fathers' Duncan Index higher than any other pattern.

Age at Milestone

The average white woman in this sample left school at seventeen, was married at twenty, and had her first child about two years later. The average black woman left school at sixteen, was married at nineteen, and had her first child within a year after marriage. (In interpreting the data presented in Table 4, it must be remembered that each woman reported her age at the various milestones as a whole number, which affects the way the mean values were calculated. For example, a woman who left school at 17, got married the day after she left school and had her first child 11 months later could have been 17 at each of those milestones.

The average age at leaving school was the highest for the women in Group 1, both black and white, which would be expected as this age correlated .71 for whites and .61 for blacks with number of years of education. The average age of first marriage and the age at which the first child was born or acquired were also greatest for this group, possibly a function of the greater age at leaving school. This hypothesis is not strongly supported in the correlational data with correlations of .27 and .24 between age at first marriage and number of years of education and .28 and .32 between age at first child and years of education for whites and blacks respectively. In the more detailed breakdown of correlations by groups, it is seen that for Group 1 the relationship between the various ages and years of education is stronger for black women than white women.

The white women in Group 2 left school earlier, married earlier, and had their first child earlier than those in Group 3. For the black women those in Group 2 left school later, but married earlier than those in Group 3. Black women in Groups 2 and 3 had their first child after about the same time elapsed after marriage. The age at first marriage was related to the age at acquisition of child with a correlation of .81 and .77 for white women in Groups 2 and 3 respectively, while for black women in these two groups this statistic was .49 and .57. This may be considered as additional support for the hypothesis that Groups 2 and 3 are different patterns for white and black women.

With respect to career patterns within groups, those that contain married women with children are of the most interest with respect to age at milestones. From Table 4 it can be seen that in both Groups 2 and 3 those women who worked between leaving school and marriage got married on the

average of approximately one year later than those women who did not work, although the age at leaving school was not appreciably different. The same result held for the period between marriage and child, although the differences are not as striking. These particular results may have been an artifact of the manner of reporting the data. Periods of less than one year between milestones were counted as zeroes.

Number of Children

The black women averaged one more child per woman than the white women (3.9 to 2.5). This makes the amount of labor force participation by the black women following the birth of the first child even more noticeable. This variable (number of children) is negatively related to all other variables considered in this study. Some of the more interesting relationships were: correlations of -.27 for white women and -.32 for black women between personal income and number of children, correlations of -.31 and -.34 between age at acquisition of first child and number of children, and correlations of -.39 and -.27 for the relationship between total number of children and percent of time worked between leaving school and present.

The relationship between the proportion of time spent in the labor force and the total number of children was negative; that is, the more children, the less work force participation. This is reflected in the average number of children for each of the three major groups. Group 1 (most work experience) had fewer children than those in Group 2 (intermediate work experience) while Group 3 (least work experience) had more children than Groups 1 and 2. In each group the black women averaged one more child than the white women.

No great differences emerge from the inspection of career patterns with respect to the number of children. In general, women who did not work between school and marriage and between marriage and first child, had more children than those who worked in one or both of these periods. In all cases except white women in Group 3, women who worked in both of these periods had the fewest children.

Income

The average personal income was slightly higher for black women ($1,526) than for white women ($1,461) although it was extremely low for both. This result may be because black women contributed more time to the labor force. The figures included the extremely low personal incomes of some women who were not currently employed, thus lowering the mean.

In comparison to personal income, the average family income for the white sample was $9,036, while the average family income for the black family was $5,109. Much of the data for this variable was missing so that these figures may be over or underestimated. One of the greatest differences between blacks and whites in terms of relationship between variables appears with this variable. Personal income correlated with Duncan Index of current or last job .20 for whites and .57 for blacks. This may have been the result

of more black women being currently employed than white women. This result could also be explained by a hypothesis that white women were underpaid for the level of work they did in relation to the pay men received for the same work.

The conflict between these competing hypotheses is partially resolved by the examination of correlations between personal income and Duncan Index of current or last job for those women who were currently employed. The difference between the correlation of these variables for the women in Group 1 was .41 for whites and .72 for blacks. For Group 2 this correlation was .29 for whites and .56 for blacks. These data argue for the second hypothesis, namely that women, especially white women, are underpaid for the level of work they perform. Reiss (1961) reports a correlation of .84 between these two (dichotomized) variables for men, although it may be argued that the calculations were done on different types of data. Given the weaknesses of the data, it may be said that white women who were currently employed have a weaker relationship between Duncan Index and personal income than black women.

For both whites and blacks, there was a positive correlation between the proportions of time spent in the labor force and personal and family income. Group 1 had the highest average personal and family income and Group 3 had the lowest. There were greater discrepancies between whites and blacks in family income than there were in personal income, reflecting the discrepancies in the income of the other members of the household (husbands in most cases).

Suter and Miller (1973) analyzed the earnings of the women in this data bank and found that, if occupational status, education, work intensity, and full-time work were controlled, their incomes would still be only 62 percent of that received by men. Thus, even the women in Group 1 were not earning salaries commensurate with those of the "career man." Suter and Miller did not attempt to look at color differences in their "career woman" sample, although they did compare the career women to black men. Considering the data reported above, an analysis by color would seem to be in order.

Turner (1972), in studying black and white college freshmen women, found that blacks were more likely than whites to expect full-time paid employment and also, that socioeconomic status did not lead to differentiation of these expectations. This may reflect a style of life in which education is seen as a road to employment rather than a road to "being a better wife and mother," which may have led to the situation found in the data reported here. This can be verified in these data with the correlation between years of education and personal income in Group 1. For the black women this statistic was .62 while for the white women this statistic was .32. Similar correlations between Duncan Index and years of education for this group were .58 for white women and .69 for black women.

With respect to the finer distinction of career patterns, it is seen that on the average single women in Group 1 made more money than married women in the same group. Married women without children in this group had a greater personal and family income than those with children. In Groups 2 and 3, white women who worked between the period of marriage and first child had both a greater personal and family income than those who did not work in this period of their lives. Women in these groups who did not have children had a smaller personal and family income than those who did, in contrast to the results obtained in Group 1.

Attitude

In response to a statement about a woman taking a full-time job outside the home if it is absolutely necessary to make ends meet, the average response for both black and white women was between "definitely all right" and "probably all right." On other questions about women working, black women generally responded more favorably than white women. The black women stated that it was "probably all right" for a woman to take a full-time job outside the home if she wants to work and her husband agrees, while the average response for white women was somewhat less favorable. To the statement regarding a woman taking a full-time job outside the home if she wants to work, even if her husband does not particularly like the idea, the average response for black women was "probably not all right," while the average response for white women was between "definitely not all right" and "probably not all right."

Responses to a question about how your husband feels about your working (or would feel if you were working) averaged for blacks and whites between "not care either way" and "like it somewhat." This particular item had much missing data so that the attitude may not have been adequately sampled.

Differences among career groups with respect to attitudes were small. What differences existed were mainly of the form where women who were currently or continuously working were more favorable to women working whether their husbands agree or disagree. The differences between blacks and whites appear to be fairly constant with no interactions of any large extent. The attitudes of the husbands of the white women in Group 3 were perceived to be more negative than those of any other Group towards their wife's working. The differences between the mean attitudes for the career patterns also showed little systematic variation between patterns.

Super's Career Patterns

The proportion of women following the six Super career patterns defined earlier is shown in Table 7. The total number of women in the sample is 4,996.

Table 7

Distribution of Women Into Super's
Career Patterns by Color

Pattern	White		Black	
	N	%	N	%
Stable Homemaking	781	21.7	298	21.4
Conventional	1063	29.5	139	10.0
Stable Working	128	3.5	47	3.4
Double-track	454	12.6	323	23.2
Interrupted	644	17.9	137	9.9
Unstable	536	14.9	446	32.1
Total	3606	100.1	1390	100.0

Color Differences

Again, there were differences between white and black women in the career pattern followed. The most commonly followed pattern for the white women was the Conventional (29.5 percent), while for the black women the Unstable pattern was most commonly followed (32.1 percent). Nearly double the proportion of the black women followed the Double-track pattern as the white (23.2 percent versus 12.6 percent), while the proportion of white women who followed the Conventional pattern more than doubled the proportion of black women in that pattern (29.5 percent versus 10 percent). Nearly the same proportion of whites and blacks followed the Stable Homemaking pattern.

Career Development Variables

Means and standard deviations of each career development variable by color group and Super's career pattern are reported in Table 8. The matrix of pair-wide complete intercorrelations between these variables for each color group and Super's career pattern is given in Table 9. The discussion of these results will be limited to those comments which are specific to Super's career patterns and not redundant with earlier discussion.

Education

For both blacks and whites, the women in the three career patterns with the most work experience (Stable Working, Double-track, and Interrupted) have higher educational levels than the mean level for the whole sample. However, the white women had a higher educational level in the Conventional pattern than the whole sample, while the black women did not. The women in the Conventional pattern are the ones who, if followed further through their lives, could potentially move into the Interrupted career pattern. For all patterns, the educational level of the husbands of the white women was slightly higher than that of themselves, with the reverse true for the black women.

Relative Desirability of Occupational Assignment

The average current Duncan Index for Super's career patterns shows the following progression: highest for Stable Working for both blacks and whites; next, Double-track for whites with Interrupted and Double-track for blacks being very close; Conventional was next for blacks followed by Unstable; for whites Conventional was third followed by Interrupted and Unstable.

The average Duncan Index of the husbands shows variation across the color groups. For the whites, the highest socioeconomic level for husbands is in the Conventional pattern; the lowest, in the Unstable. For blacks, the highest is in the Interrupted pattern, with the Stable Homemaking being the lowest. These figures may indicate that for white women, not working comes about as a result of the husband's relatively good position in the occupational world. However, this does not hold true for the black women.

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations of Career Development Variables by Super's Career Patterns

	Stable Homemaking				Conventional				Stable Working				Double Track				Interrupted				Unstable				Total Sample			
	White		Black		White		Black		White		Black		White		Black		White		Black		White		Black		White		Black	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Years of Education	10.5	3.0	9.3	2.7	11.8	2.1	9.6	2.6	12.8	2.8	11.0	3.6	11.7	2.5	9.9	3.5	11.8	2.0	10.4	2.7	10.7	2.9	9.6	2.9	11.4	2.6	9.8	3.0
Duncan Index—Current or Last Job	35.4	19.5	16.2	13.5	41.7	18.6	18.4	15.1	50.6	20.3	27.5	24.9	41.9	19.9	23.5	21.5	39.8	19.7	23.7	20.0	33.6	20.5	19.6	16.4	39.3	19.9	20.5	18.1
% of Time Spent in Labor Force School—Present	14.4	18.4	16.9	20.4	33.9	19.2	40.1	22.9	97.8	4.5	94.6	5.6	93.0	6.6	92.9	6.3	46.2	18.8	54.7	18.7	35.1	23.7	40.4	25.5	43.0	31.8	52.5	34.4
% of Time Spent in Labor Force School—Marriage	19.8	30.3	12.3	23.9	92.9	24.3	90.9	27.6	—	—	—	—	77.4	40.5	71.5	43.1	88.3	30.7	85.2	33.8	13.1	27.1	11.4	24.4	65.4	45.0	45.7	46.8
% of Time Spent in Labor Force Marriage—Child	15.7	24.9	6.2	18.5	71.7	39.0	51.2	49.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	82.9	34.7	57.9	48.6	74.7	38.8	62.4	44.9	21.9	28.5	8.4	19.9	55.1	44.7	35.1	45.5
% of Time Spent in Labor Force Child—Present	13.5	19.2	18.9	22.2	19.5	19.3	31.5	24.7	—	—	—	—	89.5	13.6	91.7	11.2	34.9	23.5	50.4	25.7	36.1	26.0	47.5	30.0	35.0	31.7	51.3	35.2
No. of Children	3.3	2.1	4.9	3.1	3.3	1.7	5.2	2.8	0.0	0.1	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.7	3.3	3.0	2.9	1.5	3.6	2.2	2.6	1.9	3.8	3.0	2.8	1.9	3.9	3.0
Husband's Educ. Level	11.2	3.7	8.2	3.8	12.5	2.9	9.2	3.6	—	—	—	—	11.8	3.0	8.8	3.9	11.8	2.7	9.7	4.1	10.9	3.3	8.3	3.7	11.8	3.2	8.7	3.8
Husband—Duncan Index	40.4	26.2	20.2	17.3	45.9	25.1	20.6	17.7	—	—	—	—	41.3	24.6	22.4	18.0	42.9	24.2	27.9	22.3	35.2	23.8	21.6	17.4	42.1	25.2	22.1	18.3
Father's Educ. Level	6.4	5.0	3.7	4.0	7.6	4.7	3.9	4.3	7.5	4.8	4.2	4.7	6.9	4.7	4.5	4.1	6.9	4.6	4.9	4.2	6.5	5.0	4.2	4.4	6.9	4.8	4.2	4.3
Father—Duncan Index	29.6	23.8	15.3	11.9	33.0	22.9	15.1	11.7	36.5	23.8	17.7	16.7	28.9	22.5	16.0	13.3	32.1	22.8	15.1	11.7	27.7	22.2	15.8	11.5	30.9	23.0	15.7	12.2
Age—Left School	16.7	2.9	15.7	3.1	17.3	2.1	16.2	2.9	19.0	4.4	17.2	3.5	17.4	2.8	16.5	3.4	17.2	2.1	16.3	2.7	16.5	2.9	16.1	3.0	17.1	2.6	16.2	3.1
Age—Married	19.3	3.8	18.9	4.4	21.1	3.3	20.2	3.9	—	—	—	—	21.4	4.6	20.5	5.3	20.1	2.8	19.8	3.7	18.3	2.8	18.7	4.5	20.1	3.6	19.5	4.6
Age—First Child	21.1	4.3	18.9	4.1	23.6	4.0	20.4	4.2	22.0	0.0	21.6	4.9	23.1	4.8	20.0	5.0	22.1	3.3	20.7	4.7	20.1	3.4	19.2	4.2	22.2	4.1	19.6	4.5
Income—Personal	260	1062	354	1021	268	1107	294	838	5173	2597	2695	2853	3268	2626	2511	2348	2305	1999	2142	1966	2262	2077	1669	1665	1461	2212	1526	1967
Income—Family	8063	5820	4394	3038	9194	4952	4967	3144	6945	3601	3391	2865	10391	5769	5653	4093	9857	4318	6287	4152	8507	4918	5038	3313	9035	5186	5109	3564
Attitude—Work Nec.	4.4	0.9	4.4	1.1	4.5	0.9	4.4	1.1	4.3	1.1	4.5	0.9	4.6	0.8	4.5	0.9	4.6	0.7	4.5	0.9	4.4	0.9	4.4	1.0	4.5	0.9	4.5	1.0
Attitude—She Wants Work & Hus. Agrees	3.5	1.5	3.9	1.3	3.6	1.4	4.1	1.2	3.5	1.5	4.2	1.1	3.9	1.3	4.1	1.3	4.0	1.2	4.2	1.1	3.7	1.4	4.1	1.3	3.7	1.4	4.1	1.3
Attitude—She Wants Work & Hus. Disagr.	1.6	1.0	1.9	1.3	1.6	1.0	2.0	1.5	1.9	1.2	2.4	1.4	1.9	1.2	2.2	1.4	1.9	1.2	2.1	1.3	1.7	1.1	2.2	1.4	1.7	1.1	2.1	1.4
Attitude—Husband to Wife Working	2.8	1.2	2.4	1.3	2.4	1.4	2.9	0.9	—	—	—	—	2.2	1.1	2.4	1.2	2.4	1.1	2.4	1.2	2.4	1.2	2.3	1.2	2.4	1.2	2.4	1.2

Table 9

Correlations Among Career Development Variables by Super's Career Pattern and Color

VARIABLE	Color	*Career Group	Personal Income WH	Personal Income BL	Total Family Income WH	Total Family Income BL	Duncan Index Father WH	Duncan Index Father BL	Duncan Index Husband WH	Duncan Index Husband BL	Age—Left School WH	Age—Left School BL	Age—First Marriage WH	Age—First Marriage BL	Age—First Child WH	Age—First Child BL	Years of Education WH	Years of Education BL	Father's Education WH	Father's Education BL	Number of Children WH	Number of Children BL	Husband's Education WH	Husband's Education BL
Duncan Index Current or Last Job		1	.09	.03	.26	.21	.41	.27	.45	.41	.46	.16	.19	.01	.26	.01	.50	.45	.36	.15	.18	.02	.51	.33
		2	.02	.12	.16	.09	.27	.10	.33	.31	.39	.18	.23	.19	.24	.03	.52	.45	.38	.08	.07	.19	.39	.33
		3	.21	.16	.19	.20	.36	.13	—	—	.24	.49	—	—	—	.17	.51	.24	.38	.18	.08	.04	—	—
		4	.17	.11	.19	.20	.28	.13	.40	.40	.23	.57	.15	.18	.19	.12	.57	.49	.37	.10	.11	.10	.45	.56
		5	.27	.01	.10	.09	.28	.23	.36	.25	.39	.46	.16	.06	.21	.18	.51	.55	.42	.19	.10	.16	.48	.38
		6	.33	.36	.39	.32	.31	.23	.41	.23	.39	.38	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Personal Income		1			.06	.23	.03	.04	.07	.07	.03	.08	.02	.07	.06	.01	.07	.18	.05	.07	.05	.09	.05	.11
		2			.08	.17	.03	.06	.03	.02	.10	.03	.03	.01	.05	.06	.05	.03	.03	.16	.02	.09	.03	.01
		3			.08	.21	.26	.24	—	—	.19	.47	—	—	—	.31	.13	.23	.09	.31	.06	.11	—	—
		4			.09	.28	.11	.16	.11	.42	.12	.48	.14	.17	.23	.16	.12	.23	.09	.31	.11	.18	.11	.52
		5			.19	.09	.02	.14	.07	.37	.12	.41	.06	.06	.03	.31	.22	.49	.08	.21	.15	.23	.04	.38
		6			.51	.57	.14	.14	.11	.16	.16	.33	.17	.06	.08	.16	—	—	—	—	—	—	.21	.39
Total Family Income		1					.22	.18	.38	.43	.24	.34	.03	.02	.09	.10	.24	.29	.17	.27	.07	.11	.44	.41
		2					.22	.01	.35	.23	.18	.14	.00	.00	.02	.06	.25	.22	.15	.19	.04	.18	.32	.30
		3					.12	.06	—	—	.06	.36	—	—	—	.07	.21	.22	.13	.23	.08	.08	—	—
		4					.16	.09	.31	.42	.12	.33	.01	.09	.06	.07	.21	.22	.13	.31	.09	.30	.24	.49
		5					.16	.16	.27	.46	.12	.33	.17	.11	.15	.32	.38	.36	.09	.29	.08	.26	.34	.32
		6					.19	.04	.41	.23	.21	.20	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Duncan Index Father		1							.42	.24	.39	.06	.17	.03	.18	.06	.47	.29	.44	.16	.14	.09	.46	.09
		2							.34	.06	.18	.08	.14	.02	.08	.16	.33	.13	.33	.24	.07	.09	.28	.31
		3							—	—	.08	.17	—	—	—	.02	.21	.07	.06	.42	.06	.15	—	—
		4							.20	.19	.20	.17	.12	.09	.07	.13	.37	.17	.37	.26	.13	.11	.27	.20
		5							.31	.14	.28	.06	.11	.16	.14	.02	.39	.19	.43	.26	.13	.19	.37	.38
		6							.35	.14	.29	.23	.13	.01	.08	.02	—	—	—	—	.08	.08	.37	.32
Duncan Index Husband		1									.35	.21	.13	.18	.19	.00	.50	.34	.34	.12	.14	.22	.62	.45
		2									.29	.16	.11	.24	.11	.21	.38	.36	.23	.26	.07	.11	.58	.37
		3									—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		4									.31	.22	.15	.16	.10	.33	.34	.45	.18	.19	.21	.29	.56	.54
		5									.30	.36	.19	.00	.14	.06	.41	.51	.28	.12	.00	.10	.46	.52
		6									.29	.23	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	.54	.56
Age—Left School		1											.27	.44	.29	.51	.73	.47	.34	.15	.17	.12	.48	.22
		2											.36	.39	.25	.40	.74	.46	.27	.16	.06	.21	.40	.47
		3											—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		4											.26	.49	.25	.38	.68	.42	.28	.15	.10	.23	.42	.43
		5											.42	.48	.23	.45	.68	.44	.28	.16	.03	.18	.49	.42
		6											.46	.38	.43	.34	.70	.51	.28	.16	.11	.19	.47	.26
Age—First Marriage		1													.74	.52	.17	.19	.08	.08	.10	.27	.17	.09
		2													.76	.54	.27	.23	.12	.16	.18	.31	.23	.28
		3													—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		4													.72	.55	.21	.32	.04	.06	.32	.29	.23	.19
		5													.61	.44	.25	.16	.05	.00	.13	.11	.30	.22
		6													.76	.48	.26	.17	.22	.10	.28	.32	.22	.03
Age—First Child		1															.23	.17	.08	.08	.14	.20	.21	.08
		2															.21	.28	.08	.08	.14	.23	.19	.36
		3															—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		4															.26	.27	.08	.11	.33	.30	.31	.30
		5															.32	.39	.11	.16	.24	.40	.31	.30
		6															.28	.23	.18	.02	.28	.37	.26	.21
Years of Education		1																	.48	.27	.23	.11	.65	.51
		2																	.37	.23	.07	.14	.54	.54
		3																	—	—	—	—	—	—
		4																	.32	.27	.09	.08	.53	.63
		5																	.36	.17	.13	.08	.54	.65
		6																	.31	.34	.05	.23	.58	.55
Father's Education		1																			.08	.05	.43	.24
		2																			.00	.05	.38	.27
		3																			—	—	—	—
		4																			.01	.11	.39	.33
		5																			.10	.14	.38	.38
		6																			.00	.06	.36	.42
Number of Children		1																					.21	.13
		2																					.06	.19
		3																					—	—
		4																					.17	.40
		5																					.04	.38
		6																					.14	.17

*Numbers refer to Super Career Pattern
1. Stable Home Making
2. Conventional
3. Stable Working
4. Double Track
5. Interrupted
6. Unstable

For both blacks and whites, the highest average Duncan Index for fathers was shown in the Stable Working pattern, although there was very little variation among all the patterns.

Time Spent in Labor Force

As these were the variables that determined the pattern to which the woman was assigned, the figures reported in Table 8 reflect these assignments.

Age at Milestone

For both blacks and whites, the pattern that shows the highest average age at leaving school is the Stable Working pattern. For all patterns, the black women left school approximately a year earlier than the white women with the exception of the Unstable pattern. The women who married latest, for both blacks and whites, were the Conventional and the Double-track. For white women the Conventional and Double-track patterns showed the oldest average age at the birth of the first child. For black women the Stable Working pattern showed the oldest average age at the birth of the first child, followed by the Conventional and Interrupted patterns.

Number of Children

The Stable Working pattern for both blacks and whites showed the lowest average number of children, followed by the Double-track pattern. Also, the three patterns that indicate the most involvement in the labor force showed a lower average number of children than the two patterns that indicate least work involvement. As before, this variable was negatively correlated with all other variables.

Income

The highest average personal income was earned by the white women in the Stable Working pattern and was $5,173. The black women in the Stable Working pattern earned $2,695. Both the white and black women in the Interrupted and Unstable patterns earned, on the average, $2,095.

In terms of family income, highest average income was earned by those in the Double-track pattern for the whites, while for the blacks, those in the Interrupted pattern had the highest average family income.

Attitudes

There were no major differences between patterns for these variables.

Summary of Results

A system for specifying career patterns was developed using work intensity variables and the milestones of leaving school, marriage, and birth or acquisition of first child. White and black women were distributed differently among these patterns with the black women generally having spent a greater percentage of time in the work force, especially after the birth of the first child. For both white and black, the continuously working women had more education, relatively more desirable occupational assignments, and a greater personal income than those women who were not classified as continuously working. Single women within the continuously working group generally had more education and more desirable occupational assignments than those who were married.

Within the non-continuously working groups of women (more than 80 percent of the sample), two different pictures emerge for white and black women. The married white woman who was not currently working had about the same educational level and last occupational assignment as the currently working white woman who had not worked continuously. The former was more likely to have a husband who was better educated with a more desirable job than the latter. Both personal and family income was more for the former group than the latter. For black women, there were different results. If she was a married, currently employed woman, she was more likely to be employed in a more desirable occupation than the last occupation of those black women who were not currently working. She was better educated and her family had a higher income than her non-working counterpart.

For Super's (1957) system of career patterns, the following results were found. The proportion of black women who were classified as Double-track was greater than that of white women. White women were just as likely to be classified as Stable Working as black women. White women were most likely to be classified in the Conventional pattern while black women were most likely to be classified as having an Unstable career pattern. The "conventional white women had better educated husbands than the white women in either the Double-track or Stable Homemaking patterns. The Double-track family had a larger family income than either the Conventional or Stable Homemaking. On the other hand, black women who were classified in the Stable Working or Interrupted patterns had a higher educational level than black women in the Double-track, Conventional or Stable Homemaking patterns. The husbands of the women in the Interrupted pattern also had a higher educational level and more desirable jobs than the husbands of the black women in either the Stable Homemaking, Double-track or Conventional patterns.

IMPLICATIONS

Five areas of implications of the data are presented below: career patterns, career development, number of children, base data, and educational implications.

Career Patterns

One of the strongest implications of this study seems to be that career patterns of women can be identified through a logical system of classification. The use of the milestones of leaving school, marriage, and child(ren), and the work intensity between these milestones seems to provide a decisive set of variables for developing a viable system. However, further research will be needed to establish the utility of the milestone approach for use in various situations. The Super classification system may serve the purpose desired in many situations where finer distinctions are not necessary or desirable.

Career Development Variables

The use of the available variables has provided some concurrent validation of both systems of career patterns. However, the lack of data on psychological variables which may modify the effects of status variables such as educational attainment, marital and family status has not made it possible to fully describe career development. Studies cited earlier have pointed up the importance of intellectual differences, the directional influence of interests, the effects of career saliency, and the importance of sex-role identification and of role models in career development. The variables of attitudes toward work do provide some limited information in this area, but further information is needed.

Number of Children

The evidence in this study shows that the fewer children a woman has, the more likely she is to have more extensive work experience. The data do not tell us whether a woman works because she has fewer children or whether she has fewer children because she works. However, in view of the current trend toward smaller families indicated by the falling birthrate, it seems reasonable to expect that more women will be working over a longer span of their lives. If the trend toward smaller families continues, the education and occupations sought by women may change a great deal.

Base Data

It cannot be stressed too strongly that the data presented here must be viewed as historical. The women included in the study were leaving school in the 1940's and early 1950's. Whether the women currently leaving school are

planning similar career patterns or whether the women who left school in the late 1950's and 1960's are actually participating in such career patterns is a question for other research. What this study does provide is a baseline of data to which other data of women who have faced other educational and occupational opportunities may be compared.

Educational Implications

Educators are currently placing a great deal of emphasis on career education. Marland (1971) pointed out that students should be prepared to either become employed immediately upon leaving high school or to go on to further formal education. This preparation for adult life needs to be broad enough to orient students to the different types of career patterns, to the way of life associated with each, their frequency, and their determinants. This study does not provide all the information needed to incorporate such information into the course of study, but it does provide a starting point.

Blocher (1974) has outlined a developmental approach to education that encompasses a chronological framework and a hierarchical framework. He has formulated a developmental chronology that outlines a sequence of life stages and developmental tasks. In addition, he specified a corresponding set of social roles and coping behaviors that assist in defining levels of effectiveness in present development to help prepare for development in subsequent stages. Information from this study could be used to aid in the evaluation of this approach.

Educators need to be aware of the wide range of options for women in terms of the career patterns that women have followed in the past and the quite probably wider range of options that are now being followed. The data presented here should be considered base data, reflecting the situation in the past, rather than as limits for what is occurring now and may occur in the future. New federal legislation, such as the Civil Rights Act of 1964 which prohibits employment discrimination on the basis of sex, and the pending Equal Rights Amendment, will lead to changes in the lives of women. Changing societal expectations can also lead to changes in the career patterns women will follow. To provide meaningful career education for all students, information about women's career patterns needs to be incorporated into courses of study from the earliest stages of education onward.

Further Research Suggestions

Five areas which appear viable for further research are discussed below. They are: the career pattern concept; career development variables; analysis procedures; age span; and models of occupational structure and career attainment.

Career Pattern Concept

The career pattern concept seems to be a useful one for looking at the occupational behavior of women as well as men. As Osipow (1968) has pointed out, full comprehension of a person's vocational life is dependent on the entire cycle, not just one point in adolescence. The data reported in this study has indicated that, for women, career patterns are closely related to events outside the occupational world. It may be interesting to compute career patterns on both intensity of work and length of time between milestones. This would provide a more complete description of what may constitute career patterns.

It may be that additional categories, analogous to patterns found in research on men's career patterns, need to be considered in order to provide broader information. In any event, the data provided by this study should be considered a useful beginning, not the final answer, in terms of women's career patterns.

Career Development Variables

Additional variables need to be looked at in relationship to career patterns. Status variables, such as marital and family status, family background, educational attainment, and current occupation are important but do not provide a comprehensive picture. Additional information, such as intellectual differences, the directional influence of interests, the role of values, the influence of role models, sex-role identification, career expectations and future plans at various stages of life, is needed in order to predict the possible career patterns women may choose to follow.

Analysis Procedures

With a complete set of data (perhaps a subset of the data from this study, if the biasing effects are not too substantial, or a new set of data with a wider range of variables), a number of techniques might be used to determine which set (or sets) of career patterns and/or groups would be of most use in further research on women's career patterns. Procedures that could be utilized would include factor analysis, discriminant functions, and multiple regression methods.

Age Span

This study has given a picture of women's career patterns to age forty-four. However, this is by no means the end of the potential work force participation for many members of the sample. It is suggested that further research attempt to deal with women's career patterns from the time they leave school to age sixty-five.

Although longitudinal studies are costly and, of necessity, time consuming, a study paralleling Super's seminal study of a group of men from the time they are entering school to the early stages of establishment in their

careers (Super, Kowalski, and Gotkin, 1967) would provide a great deal of information. Until such information can be obtained on a longitudinal basis, retrospective studies can offer many clues as to the development of women's career patterns.

Models of Occupational Structure and Career Attainment

The work of Blau and Duncan (1967) has underlined the importance of the occupational structure in the careers of men and has provided a theoretical model that has been tested for men. The model attempts to predict the occupation of an individual using information on father's occupation and educational level, the Duncan Index of the first job held, and the Duncan Index of the current job. Other variables that could be entered into the model would include color, marital status, number of children, and career pattern.

Sewell, Haller, and Ohlendorf (1971) have provided a model for the early educational and occupational attainment of men. Attempts to utilize the model on data from women would indicate the utility of the model for the population in general.

The Duncan Index, whether as an indicator of socioeconomic status or as an indicator of the relative desirability of occupational assignment, should be validated on data available from women. Haug (1973) has outlined some of the shortcomings in the current measurement of social class which ignores the occupational roles of wives and mothers. Further studies might be attempted on the data available from the data bank used in this study or on census data such as that used by the original study which established the Duncan Index for men.

APPENDIX A

Means and Standard Deviations of Career Development Variables by Career Group and Pattern

Table A-1

Means and Standard Deviations of Years of Formal Education by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	11.52	2.54	9.75	3.44	Pattern 2.1	12.03	1.95	11.74	2.26	Pattern 3.1	11.87	1.94	10.23	2.45
					2.2	11.47	2.05	9.93	2.50	3.2	11.65	2.02	9.38	2.74
					2.3	12.09	2.02	10.62	3.14	3.3	12.31	2.58	10.13	2.22
					2.4	10.77	2.80	9.73	3.03	3.4	10.49	3.02	9.30	2.82
1.2	12.00	2.23	11.53	3.63	2.5	10.65	2.76	8.72	2.37	3.5	10.54	3.30	9.17	3.49
1.3	12.84	2.81	11.04	3.62	2.6	11.87	3.76	10.71	1.99	3.6	8.70	3.67	8.50	2.80

Table A-2

Means and Standard Deviations of the Duncan Index of Current or Last Job by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	40.22	19.79	22.31	20.65	Pattern 2.1	42.67	18.38	33.70	21.24	Pattern 3.1	42.39	18.73	23.27	16.46
					2.2	37.17	19.78	21.01	18.83	3.2	41.49	18.61	17.82	14.55
					2.3	42.70	20.72	23.81	20.69	3.3	41.30	18.52	15.69	16.57
					2.4	33.53	20.19	20.60	17.21	3.4	35.20	19.43	16.36	13.28
1.2	46.56	19.72	30.93	25.35	2.5	31.29	20.22	15.49	12.22	3.5	37.59	20.02	14.91	15.40
1.3	50.64	20.31	27.49	24.86	2.6	41.09	27.01	21.40	16.09	3.6	33.82	16.79	12.00	6.50

Table A-3

Means and Standard Deviations of Percentage of Time Spent in Labor Force Since Leaving School by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	92.15	6.53	92.50	6.28	Pattern 2.1	51.24	17.66	55.75	18.04	Pattern 3.1	43.67	18.19	49.76	20.51
					2.2	42.57	18.51	52.53	19.49	3.2	28.87	17.82	39.26	22.87
					2.3	46.46	19.93	61.73	14.84	3.3	33.52	19.15	31.75	22.85
					2.4	33.71	22.37	40.97	24.74	3.4	12.79	16.75	15.83	19.41
1.2	95.32	6.09	95.35	6.19	2.5	48.87	22.98	49.80	24.54	3.5	35.85	25.73	32.72	28.10
1.3	97.76	4.52	94.57	5.63	2.6	61.34	21.04	48.99	27.26	3.6	16.76	26.19	22.35	24.07

Table A-4

Means and Standard Deviations of Percentage of Time Spent in Labor Force between School and Marriage by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	73.47	43.00	69.29	44.23	Pattern 2.1	99.79	1.76	99.33	3.21	Pattern 3.1	99.81	1.61	100.00	0.0
					2.2	99.45	2.66	99.32	2.86	3.2	99.61	2.36	99.48	2.62
					2.3	13.28	26.15	10.78	23.11	3.3	15.63	28.11	9.62	24.02
					2.4	10.18	22.60	9.28	21.22	3.4	16.24	26.02	10.33	20.66
1.2	87.32	31.56	84.88	33.01	2.5	44.45	43.86	38.54	39.82	3.5	62.91	43.58	34.03	41.83
1.3					2.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Table A-5

Means and Standard Deviations of Percentage of Time Spent in Labor Force between Marriage and First Child by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	83.17	34.51	58.30	48.50	Pattern 2.1	99.95	.77	100.00	0.0	Pattern 3.1	99.21	3.36	99.55	2.13
					2.2	26.89	29.50	15.10	24.72	3.2	28.81	29.28	2.75	11.84
					2.3	99.69	2.19	98.19	5.13	3.3	99.09	3.47	100.00	0.0
					2.4	27.70	28.99	10.58	22.05	3.4	15.88	25.03	5.27	16.05
1.2	66.67	57.74	0.0	0.0	2.5	25.00	50.00	3.33	7.45	3.5	0.0	0.0	35.56	55.91
1.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Table A-6

Means and Standard Deviations of Percentage of Time Spent in Labor Force Following Birth or Acquisition of First Child by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	89.43	13.68	91.70	11.22	Pattern 2.1	32.87	21.45	35.24	20.32	Pattern 3.1	20.92	19.79	33.92	24.90
					2.2	34.06	23.70	48.73	24.25	3.2	17.43	18.02	31.56	24.10
					2.3	41.80	25.77	69.22	24.09	3.3	23.08	21.43	27.85	23.60
					2.4	36.13	26.01	47.99	29.67	3.4	13.52	19.25	18.80	21.97
1.2	98.04	3.40	80.77	0.0	2.5	42.86	0.0	75.64	5.12	3.5	4.76	6.73	50.40	30.87
1.3					2.6					3.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Table A-7

Means and Standard Deviations of Number of Children by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	2.55	1.45	3.86	2.91	Pattern 2.1	2.88	1.24	3.00	1.35	Pattern 3.1	3.34	1.72	4.46	2.50
					2.2	2.97	1.61	3.97	2.35	3.2	3.26	1.71	5.19	2.82
					2.3	3.19	1.72	2.92	2.06	3.3	3.24	1.55	5.94	2.91
					2.4	3.13	1.66	4.41	2.89	3.4	3.56	1.98	5.28	2.86
1.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
1.3	.02	.13	1.17	1.85	2.6	.13	.46	1.68	1.97	3.6	.83	2.13	2.63	2.85

Table A-8

Means and Standard Deviations of Husband's Education
by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	11.54	3.12	8.56	3.82	Pattern 2.1	12.07	2.53	10.28	4.34	Pattern 3.1	12.30	2.88	8.88	4.76
					2.2	11.40	2.79	9.36	3.79	3.2	12.43	3.02	9.40	3.36
					2.3	12.33	2.82	10.18	4.77	3.3	13.30	3.06	8.50	3.93
					2.4	10.88	3.27	8.34	3.76	3.4	11.22	3.75	8.15	3.85
1.2	12.33	2.61	10.06	4.07	2.5	11.00	3.57	7.67	2.45	3.5	11.27	3.26	8.23	5.36
1.3					2.6					3.6				

Table A-9

Means and Standard Deviations of Husband's Duncan Index by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	38.82	24.28	21.98	17.82	Pattern 2.1	44.90	23.96	31.67	23.14	Pattern 3.1	45.20	24.22	25.40	22.93
					2.2	41.41	24.22	25.51	20.91	3.2	44.98	25.06	19.65	16.40
					2.3	43.64	24.85	32.94	26.22	3.3	53.60	26.94	19.33	18.93
					2.4	35.07	23.75	21.07	16.87	3.4	40.73	26.07	19.70	16.19
1.2	47.78	24.29	24.66	19.30	2.5	36.50	24.39	26.00	21.51	3.5	35.51	27.17	26.64	27.94
1.3					2.6					3.6				

Table A-10

Means and Standard Deviations of Father's Education by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	6.55	4.72	4.58	4.21	Pattern 2.1	7.29	4.50	6.18	5.07	Pattern 3.1	7.86	4.33	5.05	4.68
					2.2	6.49	4.70	4.68	3.95	3.2	7.39	4.69	3.55	3.92
					2.3	7.45	4.40	4.52	4.38	3.3	8.30	5.17	5.38	5.39
					2.4	6.49	4.96	4.41	4.45	3.4	6.47	5.01	3.66	4.03
1.2	7.75	4.48	3.68	3.63	2.5	6.51	5.33	2.84	4.15	3.5	6.04	5.05	3.59	4.35
1.3	7.48	4.78	4.16	4.66	2.6	7.95	5.25	4.12	4.48	3.6	5.74	5.19	3.47	3.90

Table A-11

Means and Standard Deviations of Duncan Index of Head of Household When Woman Was 15 by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	27.59	22.09	15.82	13.17	Pattern 2.1	36.72	23.81	23.05	21.04	Pattern 3.1	32.42	21.70	16.65	12.75
					2.2	29.78	22.32	12.73	4.44	3.2	32.70	23.06	13.59	8.29
					2.3	30.82	20.87	16.50	14.81	3.3	36.52	24.30	21.94	21.59
					2.4	27.18	22.03	16.04	12.02	3.4	29.57	23.84	15.21	11.69
1.2	32.38	23.26	17.15	13.92	2.5	27.75	22.73	16.07	6.62	3.5	30.34	23.75	16.60	14.23
1.3	36.53	23.81	17.67	16.74	2.6	41.45	24.07	14.81	8.05	3.6	24.73	20.11	14.29	11.93

Table A-12

Means and Standard Deviations of Age at Leaving School by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	17.39	2.93	16.26	3.18	Pattern 2.1	17.36	1.93	17.30	2.31	Pattern 3.1	17.30	1.99	17.32	2.40
					2.2	16.97	1.10	16.17	2.60	3.2	17.20	1.95	15.83	2.95
					2.3	17.67	2.52	15.78	3.46	3.3	18.00	3.10	17.27	2.46
					2.4	16.47	2.62	16.11	3.04	3.4	16.66	2.80	15.72	3.04
1.2	17.39	2.40	17.78	4.40	2.5	16.10	3.46	15.87	2.98	3.5	17.58	3.75	14.95	3.15
1.3	19.02	4.38	17.17	3.55	2.6	18.43	4.15	16.26	2.72	3.6	17.46	5.03	15.70	3.16

Table A-13

Means and Standard Deviations of Age at First Marriage by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	20.53	4.18	20.12	5.02	Pattern 2.1	20.39	2.60	20.52	3.20	Pattern 3.1	20.87	2.74	20.77	3.55
					2.2	20.16	2.90	19.97	3.83	3.2	21.47	3.51	20.48	4.01
					2.3	19.14	2.70	18.73	3.65	3.3	19.54	3.02	17.63	3.01
					2.4	18.05	2.52	18.43	4.04	3.4	19.98	3.50	18.70	4.21
1.2	23.48	4.88	23.04	6.19	2.5	20.90	4.03	22.03	7.22	3.5	23.48	5.53	21.32	5.55
1.3					2.6					3.6				

Table A-14

Means and Standard Deviations of Age at Birth or Acquisition of First Child by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	23.05	4.79	20.02	5.00	Pattern 2.1	22.59	3.12	22.57	3.33	Pattern 3.1	23.69	3.59	22.77	4.08
					2.2	21.26	3.40	19.51	3.97	3.2	23.65	4.12	20.03	4.18
					2.3	21.37	3.30	22.96	6.30	3.3	22.75	4.32	19.81	3.45
					2.4	20.01	3.27	18.97	4.13	3.4	21.10	4.28	18.88	4.06
1.2	25.00	2.65	15.00	0.0	2.5	28.50	3.54	24.67	6.66	3.5	24.00	7.12	22.75	6.80
1.3	22.00	0.0	21.56	4.94	2.6	27.50	6.36	18.71	2.89	3.6	19.50	2.65	21.14	4.43

Table A-15

Means and Standard Deviations of Current Personal Income by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	3003.15	2658.32	2368.45	2313.42	Pattern 2.1	2246.26	1975.61	2698.70	1974.69	Pattern 3.1	226.86	876.87	280.00	591.40
					2.2	2275.13	1994.86	1911.53	1963.10	3.2	274.43	1185.33	328.28	939.63
					2.3	2522.67	2067.18	2420.31	1904.62	3.3	335.02	1117.72	99.25	257.28
					2.4	2256.94	2026.26	1807.03	1681.29	3.4	266.45	1085.83	358.75	1044.13
1.2	3974.10	2409.73	3375.82	2396.73	2.5	3004.40	2226.84	1869.75	1591.06	3.5	160.18	615.50	299.78	708.82
1.3	5173.12	2596.81	2695.04	2853.39	2.6	3180.74	2215.58	2120.04	1502.01	3.6	51.30	179.38	61.78	225.74

Table A-16

Means and Standard Deviations of Current Family Income by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	10195.73	5947.41	5345.72	3989.15	Pattern 2.1	10085.95	4284.31	7220.06	3912.18	Pattern 3.1	8627.73	3764.65	4576.75	2642.15
					2.2	9609.18	4540.65	5881.48	4079.42	3.2	9163.29	4804.15	5004.22	3078.99
					2.3	10204.75	3604.08	6860.26	4545.48	3.3	11044.45	7825.36	5250.69	4112.44
					2.4	8874.78	4885.08	5280.02	3231.40	3.4	8136.79	5912.81	4457.40	3039.19
1.2	10982.94	5179.55	7442.13	4291.84	2.5	9048.72	4483.20	5963.41	4150.47	3.5	6979.57	4358.10	3555.77	2977.82
1.3	6945.00	3601.38	3390.82	2665.13	2.6	3727.00	3036.37	4352.50	2968.39	3.6	3875.40	3382.29	2385.27	2178.27

Table A-17

Means and Standard Deviations of Attitudes Toward Working When It Is Necessary for Family by Career Group and Pattern

	GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK		
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	4.67	.72	4.58	.95	Pattern 2.1	4.61	.70	4.57	.90	Pattern 3.1	4.60	.73	4.18	1.14
					2.2	4.55	.76	4.48	.93	3.2	4.44	.87	4.48	1.02
					2.3	4.63	.66	4.65	.49	3.3	4.43	1.02	4.19	1.33
					2.4	4.43	.96	4.46	.97	3.4	4.38	.99	4.36	1.10
1.2	4.48	.91	4.31	1.08	2.5	4.06	1.33	4.31	1.26	3.5	4.18	1.00	4.70	.88
1.3	4.30	1.10	4.52	.94	2.6	4.76	.54	4.68	.69	3.6	4.22	1.09	4.11	1.25

Table A-18

Mean and Standard Deviation of Attitude Toward Working When Wife Wants To and Husband Agrees by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	4.15	1.22	4.18	1.27	Pattern 2.1	4.11	1.17	3.74	1.36	Pattern 3.1	3.69	1.46	4.09	1.02
					2.2	3.96	1.30	4.25	1.11	3.2	3.56	1.44	4.19	1.20
					2.3	4.09	1.18	4.39	.90	3.3	3.62	1.41	3.44	1.63
					2.4	3.76	1.41	4.13	1.23	3.4	3.46	1.51	4.02	1.28
1.2	3.51	1.53	3.76	1.32	2.5	3.53	1.42	3.75	1.61	3.5	3.64	1.60	3.74	1.45
1.3	3.55	1.51	4.20	1.15	2.6	3.77	1.38	4.12	1.27	3.6	3.57	1.34	3.82	1.29

Table A-19

Means and Standard Deviations of Attitude Toward Working When Wife Wants to and Husband Disagrees by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern 1.1	2.03	1.30	2.17	1.37	Pattern 2.1	1.89	1.22	2.00	1.09	Pattern 3.1	1.70	1.16	2.05	1.50
					2.2	1.85	1.18	2.25	1.35	3.2	1.53	.94	2.07	1.49
					2.3	1.97	1.17	1.89	1.42	3.3	1.53	.94	1.63	1.20
					2.4	1.74	1.12	2.20	1.40	3.4	1.57	1.01	1.96	1.30
1.2	1.72	1.08	2.11	1.39	2.5	1.53	.78	2.03	1.15	3.5	1.64	1.01	1.78	1.17
1.3	1.93	1.24	2.37	1.36	2.6	1.57	.93	2.56	1.56	3.6	2.17	1.11	2.37	1.24

Table A-20

Means and Standard Deviations of Perceived Husband's Attitude
Toward Wife's Working by Career Group and Pattern

GROUP 1					GROUP 2					GROUP 3				
	WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK			WHITE		BLACK	
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.
Pattern					Pattern					Pattern				
1.1	2.21	1.12	2.39	1.24	2.1	2.46	1.11	2.67	1.09	3.1	2.25	1.49	3.25	.50
					2.2	2.42	1.17	2.29	1.16	3.2	2.19	1.28	3.00	1.00
					2.3	2.26	1.12	2.38	1.31	3.3	3.67	1.53	1.00	0.00
					2.4	2.42	1.17	2.34	1.21	3.4	2.83	1.24	2.25	1.25
1.2	2.20	1.14	2.50	1.08	2.5	2.68	.96	2.20	1.20	3.5			3.50	.71
1.3					2.6					3.6				

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